I am delighted to now serve as President of the American Psychology Law Society. I am following in the wake of our now President-elect Patricia Zapf, who continues to advance her presidential initiative regarding communications. She gave an outstanding address at our March conference that challenged us as individuals and as an organization to consider how we can communicate most effectively with each other and external audiences.

I am happy to communicate that our Division is in good standing to create and take advantage of a variety of opportunities. As of August 2015 we had 2756 paid members, including almost 1500 full members, over 1000 student members, about 500 lifetime members, and nearly 200 early career professional members. We will continue to grow the organization and really examine how we can increase the numbers of some of our constituent groups such as legal scholars and practitioners. As I mentioned, the communications initiative of now past-president Patricia Zapf will help us make progress in staying connected. A number of committees have also been quite active with particular groups, including our recently revived Legal Scholars committee and the ongoing efforts from the Professional Development of Women, Corrections, and Minority Affairs Committee, each of whom offered excellent symposia at our March conference. Our Continuing Education Committee provided excellent opportunities for professional development through 6 pre-conference workshops that drew
more than 120 attendees from a variety of professional backgrounds.

At a national level, the Hoffman report and activity at American Psychological Association’s Annual Convention in August focused attention on issues relevant to many of our members. Thanks to all of you who offered reactions, advice, and ideas regarding if and how APLS should engage in the discussion. We were well represented during the APA Council meetings by Dave DeMatteo and Brian Cutler, who eloquently reminded representatives about the full range of activities related to interrogation writ large, including important research leading to evidence-based practices, forensic evaluations for individual cases, and consultation on policy and practice. We will continue to monitor the activities of APA and other divisions, identifying opportunities for APLS members to have a voice in the debates and decisions that emerge. Please continue to be in touch to share ideas and let me know how you would like to be involved.

That experience raised several questions for me that I would like us to consider as an organization. How do we respond to issues raised by policy, law, advocacy, and the psychology community? We have an excellent white paper series but by its very nature is a slow deliberate process. Can and should we engage in social issues and conversations in a more timely fashion? What are the costs and benefits to having a voice in the debate or remaining silent? Can we consider greater engagement with policy issues and policy audiences beyond our traditional areas? Even from my experience talking with some of you about the Hoffman report it is clear we have a variety of viewpoints and I hope to continue our conversations and debates in the months ahead.

As I write this column our Call for Proposals for the 2016 Annual Conference in Atlanta, Georgia is now available. On behalf of our conference co-chairs, Vanessa Edkins and Curt Carlson, and the Conference Advisory Committee, I encourage you to consider submitting a proposal and continuing the dialogue among APLS members about the important research, practice, and policy issues that command your attention.

I look forward to working with you all in the upcoming year and seeing you in Atlanta!

-Jennifer Wollard
As any watcher of the Marvel movies knows, origin stories are important. You can’t fully understand The Wolverine until you know how he came to be sporting those retractable adamantium claws. Trial consulting also has an origin story, coming from cases in the early to mid-seventies, when academics interested in legal psychology (not unlike many of today’s APLS members) provided their expertise on juror psychology, weighing in firmly on the side of social justice. A current critic of the field, however, argues that trial consultants have strayed too far from those noble origins. Adam Benforado, Associate Professor of Law at Drexel University, authored an article in a recent issue of Atlantic entitled, “Reasonable Doubts about the Jury System.” It is an adaptation from his book, Unfair: The New Science of Criminal Injustice, and it is a pretty broad swipe at the trial consulting field. The subheading is, “Trial consultants allow the affluent to manipulate the biases of those who judge them, putting justice up for sale.”

Benforado’s argument, however, is a little different than most previous broad swipes at the field of trial consulting. Most often, those who argue for licensing, limiting, or just banning the practice will proceed on the assumption that trial consultants are like a toxin that distorts an otherwise fair process, and manipulates those terribly impressionable juries (cue Billy Flynn from the Broadway play Chicago to sing “Razzle-Dazzle”). Benforado shares some of these attitudes, but with a little more nuance. For example, he starts the piece by astutely observing the many ways the formal legal process upholds images of bias and human influence that are wildly out of step with the social science. Also, unlike most critics, he seems to have a pretty accurate understanding of what consultants do, and an appreciation for our role in bringing the process toward a more realistic understanding of human psychology. The main problem for Benforado, however, is that these fruits aren’t distributed evenly. And he’s right about that. Still, he fails to appreciate the trial consulting community’s goals and actions in addressing that imbalance and in sharing the wealth when it comes to expertise. As much as trial consultants like myself might naturally bristle at the criticism, I think that full-time litigation consultants, as well as academics who study legal psychology and do some consulting from time to time, would be better off taking some of Benforado’s point to heart, and using this argument as an impetus to promoting even broader access.

Professor Benforado begins by reviewing the variety of “...but, can you be fair?” style questions that are asked in courtrooms across the country. The problem in these questions, he notes, is that they embody the belief that biases are known by the individual and can be addressed through that individual’s awareness of that bias combined with their conscious decision to “set it aside” in order to consider only the evidence in the case. “While we purport to address bias,” Benforado notes, “what we actually do is reinforce a false narrative of what bias is, where it comes from, and how it can be remedied.”

Every trial consultant I know, and probably most every member of APLS, is vigorously nodding their head in the affirmative on that statement. Trial consultants are generally at war with the conventional process of jury selection that ends up reinforcing a mistaken belief in the power of objectivity and conscious control over biases, presenting impartiality as a choice to be made by each prospective juror. When addressing bias, our focus isn’t on self-diagnosis and promises, but on effective questioning and strikes.

And as Benforado also agrees, this unsophisticated attitude toward psychology applies not just to voir dire, but also to the handling of evidence, legal objections, and witnesses. “To hear the law tell it, we are supermen and wonder women, able to rise above our prejudices, see through lies, and recall past events with crystal clarity.” He also gets it right that not everyone is naïve about that, and some are savvier than others. Trial consultants are singled out in the article as the savviest. After describing what we do in advising on more effective voir dire, witness, and message strategies, he notes, “This all seems beneficial—a natural development in the pursuit of more effective and complete legal representation. So what’s the problem?”

Well, the problem is the next point he got right.

Where He Got it Right, Part Two: There Is an Imbalance in Access to the Trial Consultants

Benforado is initially complimentary about trial consultants, introducing us as a group that is carefully reading the research findings and applying that knowledge to obtain better results in trial. The problem, in his narrative, is that the profession has lost its way. Starting off as a tool for balancing the scales when political activists or the socially downtrodden faced trials in communities that had already arrived at a pretrial verdict...
of "guilty," the field these days is more likely to serve powerful and moneyed interests. In a familiar tale, we've gone from fighting 'the Man,' to being 'the Man.' The result is that we have "unequal access to the truth about how legal actors perceive, think, and behave." Standard in high-roller or high-profile criminal defenses, trial consultants are generally missing in the more common trials, and that means that in practice, the rich or the notorious are more likely to go free while the poor and the unknown go to prison.

In saying that, Benforado seems to be relying on a broad perception or an anecdotal understanding of the field. It would be interesting to see data on the rates at which criminal defendants of various means, as well as prosecutors for that matter, have access to trial consulting assistance. The collection of such data might fall squarely within the bailiwicks of many of the APLS members who are readers of this publication. Also, Benforado doesn't account for civil practice where, often, both sides are moneyed interests with equal access to trial consultants. Still, I suspect most working trial consultants, and most academics who study legal psychology, will acknowledge that there is some truth to this critique of imbalance, understanding that it applies to both civil and criminal settings.

And Where He Got it Wrong: Litigation Consultants Do Care About That Imbalance

Benforado doesn't say how he knows, but says that trial consultants don't care about this skew on the process: "Few of these good people—trained scientists, lawyers, and others—ever stop to consider the far-reaching effects of their actions: We are selling jurors' and judges' minds to the highest bidder." This, he says, is at odds with the profession's origin story. "The cruel irony is that the trailblazers of the trial-consulting industry were motivated by a desire to defend the poor and vulnerable." However, he believes those good intentions have been overthrown by commerce. "When you possess the scientific knowledge to bend legal processes, judges, jurors, and witnesses to your ends, it's hard to say no to the easy money."

Again, it would be pretty interesting to see the data: On a year-to-year basis, how many trial consultants serve more than money by engaging in meaningful pro bono service? I do, those I know and respect do as well, and I bet many APLS members have donated their time to serving the criminal or civil justice system in one form or another. But more broadly, there is an absence of data. So, I don't truly know the answer to that question, and neither does Benforado. Benforado might not even know that the only professional organization for the field, the American Society of Trial Consultants ("ASTC"), is currently prioritizing pro-bono access and initiative. There's certainly room to do more, and APLS members who are interested in learning more about this, can contact the Society's Pro Bono committee.

But Benforado seems to be making an even larger point about just keeping our information to ourselves. "As we've seen, researchers are producing an ever-expanding pool of data about what really moves police officers, judges, jurors, and others," he writes. "The problem is that for much of the population, there is no point of entry. Journal paywalls deny access and many scientists are reluctant to point out the practical applications of their work, lest they be accused of going beyond their data." But that simply isn't true. There are more points of entry than ever before, and plenty of sources that are willing to go beyond the strict academic descriptions of the research in order to talk about the practical lessons of the research, such as the many law and psychology blogs that now exist. Sure there are criticisms that can be leveled against blogs. But, because of blogs, those wanting to have access to the kinds of specialized knowledge applied by trial consultants have better access than ever before. That's no substitute for having a trial consultant in your corner, of course, but it is an important step toward democratizing the knowledge base.

Even superheroes, in addition to origin stories, also have weaknesses. And consultants should admit their weaknesses as well. Benforado writes of "weak ethical guidelines and loose professional constraints." In response, I could point to the ethical codes of psychology that guide the work of most APLS members. I could also point to ASTC's professional code, including ethical principles and general practice guidelines: It is more constrained than most in the legal world would credit. But, truthfully, trial consulting is still a relatively open and unconstrained profession.

However, as much as Benforado faults court system for assuming super powers on the part of jurors, he may be doing the same on the part of trial consultants. In critiquing the field for "using social science to catalogue, control, and all too often accentuate biases," he is acting as though we are simply pushing magic buttons that cause influence in the courtroom. Instead, trial consultants are one part of a team trying to do the best for the client. As far as trying to win, I'll plead guilty as charged. It is in the nature of an adversary system that if both sides should be doing their best to win within the limits of the facts and the law, then the truth wins out. That is where Benforado's most valid point comes into play: Too often, particularly in criminal settings, it isn't both sides, nor is it all or most defendants. That isn't a reason to downplay or avoid trial consulting, but a reason to spread the benefits. Because many members of APLS interact with the justice system and serve, at least from time to time, as "litigation consultants" in the broadest sense of the word, I humbly call upon the APLS membership to "spread the benefits" by embracing more pro bono representations, more court-appointed consultants, more practical application of the knowledge and data we generate, and more sharing of that knowledge with those who will benefit from it.
Victims of sexual assault are routinely blamed for their behaviors before, during, and after a sexual assault. Victims who participate in “high risk” behaviors such as underage drinking, drug use, or promiscuous dress at the time of an assault are blamed more than victims who did not participate in such behaviors. Even police and prosecutors often view the victim negatively if she had consumed alcohol prior to an assault (Schuller & Stewart, 2010), and they may be inclined to drop the case if the victim seems blameworthy (Brown, Hamilton, & O’Neal, 2007; Stewart & Maddren, 1997). Importantly, victim blame often decreases victim credibility in the courtroom (Wenger & Bornstein, 2006) and results in fewer convictions (e.g., Angelone, Mitchell, & Pilafova; Rye, Grawreich, & Enright, 2006).

One of the reasons that victims are sometimes blamed is society’s strong desire to believe that good things happen to good people and bad things happen to bad people. This view of the world is called Belief in a Just World (BJW; Lerner & Simmons, 1966). Individuals who hold such beliefs are also likely to endorse what are called rape myths (Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA); Burt, 1980). Examples of rape myths include “women secretly wish to be raped,” and “women who dress promiscuously are asking to be raped.”

Our research attempted to find courtroom strategies that could enhance the credibility of rape victims, particularly victims who might be perceived as blameworthy. Our research story has been discouraging because we have found that victim blame is incredibly difficult to overcome in the courtroom. Below is a review of some of our findings and we end on what we hope can provide a glimmer of hope for the blamed rape victim.

First, we manipulated sympathy for the victim. In these studies, sympathy was manipulated through the use of a Victim Impact Statement. We examined both strong and weak sympathy manipulations. We were surprised to find that inducing sympathy had the unintended consequence of the victim being perceived as less likeable and less credible. And what’s more, inducting sympathy was most harmful when the victim was portrayed as blameworthy.

Next, we examined a concept known as “negative acknowledgment.” Negative acknowledgment occurs when an individual acknowledges or draws attention to a potentially negative quality, resulting in more positive perceptions of that quality (Ward & Brenner, 2006). In our research, for participants high in RMA and BJW, a victim who “negatively acknowledged” her blameworthy behavior of drinking prior to an assault was perceived as less credible relative to the victim who did not engage in negative acknowledgment. Our hindsight speculation is that for participants who already had a propensity toward blaming victims, a victim’s negative acknowledgment may have just confirmed and justified those very beliefs.

Our most recent study is more encouraging. We examined the impact of expert testimony that specifically discusses RMA and BJW on perceptions of victim credibility. This type of expert testimony had a positive impact on jurors’ evaluations of the victim. In the low blame condition, the use of expert testimony marginally increased victim credibility and significantly decreased BJW. In the high blame condition, the expert marginally increased sympathy for the victim.

While we are aware of how experts are routinely called to testify on Rape Trauma Syndrome, we are not aware of how common it is for an expert to explain RMA and BJW in the courtroom. Through our research we have come to the conclusion that most states, if not all, would be willing to allow an expert to testify on the topic of RMA. The Daubert standard as established within the Federal Rules of Evidence states that the scientific testimony that is presented to the court should be relevant and reliable (Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals, 1993). The Federal Rules of Evidence Rule 702 further specifies that the testimony must be based on sufficient facts and data, it must be the product of reliable research methods, and the witness should apply the research reliably to the facts of the case. The testimony is normally allowed if it is scientifically valid and beyond the common understanding of the jurors (Lonsway, 2005).

Our research operates on this idea of using expert testimony on the topic of RMA. Rape myths and their ability to potentially impact judges and juries have been well established through numerous accounts of reliable, empirical literature (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010; Tuchnick & Edwards, 2012; Yamawaki, 2009). While most states use the Federal Rules of Evidence or the Daubert standard, a select few still use the Frye standard, which originally required that any admissible evidence be generally accepted by the scientific community (Frye v. United States, 1923). As discussed before, research regarding RMA is largely accepted and supported by the psychological community.

Conclusion

Victim blame in cases of sexual assault has serious ramifications, including victims’ fears of reporting a rape incident (e.g., Du Mont, Miller, & Myhr, 2003) and dropped cases in which the victim was engaged in “risky” behaviors (Brown, Hamilton, & O’Neal, 2007). In the event a case actually makes it to trial, victim blame also leads to reduced victim credibility and fewer convictions (e.g., Angelone et al., 2007; Wenger & Bornstein, 2006). Furthermore, victims of sexual assault often blame themselves, which exacerbates the negative health consequences of victim blame. Self blame leads to chronic depression (Brancombe, Wohl, Owen, Allison, & Ng’gala, 2003; Frazier, 1990), PTSD (Moor & Farchi, 2011), and increased risk of re-victimization (e.g., Miller, Markman, & Handley, 2007).

Given these very serious consequences of victim blame, our goal has been to examine ways to restore a victim’s credibility at trial. Unfortunately, this has been a very challenging task, but perhaps the use of expert testimony can provide a glimmer of hope for the blamed rape victim.


Abstract

Law is becoming an increasingly interdisciplinary field. In theory, the additional knowledge gained from training in multiple disciplines should result in a competitive advantage in the academic job market; however, the additional specialization might also limit job opportunities. This study analyzed academic job postings over multiple disciplines to determine if interdisciplinary training is a desirable candidate quality. Results indicated that the majority of job postings were open to job candidates with interdisciplinary training. Institutions with more of a research-based focus also had a greater desire for such experience. Thus, it appears that interdisciplinary training would not be an impediment to students’ success on the job market and may in fact help them to achieve a competitive edge over candidates who are trained in a single discipline or area of research practice.

Introduction

Ancient philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle argued for the idea of a unified science in which all knowledge is synthesized into a coherent whole, which then feeds independent divisions of inquiry. While the nineteenth century promoted the idea of individual disciplinarity, due largely to the development of expensive and sophisticated scientific instrumentation within individual fields and the founding of academic departments and professional societies, there is now an increasing movement to return to the blurring of boundaries within disciplines (Klein, 1990). In 2007, Wuchty, Jones and Uzzi conducted a meta-analysis of nearly 20 million published papers spanning five decades and found that team-based research had increased across all fields. Team-based research also resulted in more frequently cited papers and research of exceptionally high impact. Their analysis relies on the assumption that diversity of the authors is what produces influential team research, reflecting a movement toward the promotion of interdisciplinary among both universities and funding agencies (e.g., Brint, Marcey, & Shaw, 2009; Davies, Devinl, & Tight, 2010). Funding agencies are influencing and potentially driving this trend by often explicitly requiring teams composed of researchers from diverse backgrounds and perspectives.

Wuchty et al.’s (2007) analysis begs the question of what, exactly, constitutes interdisciplinary research. Interdisciplinary research is a “mode of research by teams or individuals that integrates information, data, techniques, tools, perspectives, concepts, and/or theories from two or more disciplines or bodies of specialized knowledge to advance fundamental understanding or to solve problems whose solutions are beyond the scope of a single discipline or area of research practice” (Committee on Facilitating Interdisciplinary Research, 2004, p. 2). This is not to be confused with multidisciplinary research, which involves multiple disciplines in juxtaposition but not interacting (Ellis, 2009). The goal of interdisciplinary research is “not to reach across the aisle, but rather to eliminate it” (Jaffe, 2009, p. 10).

Interdisciplinary research, as suggested by the Wuchty and colleagues (2007) study, has the potential of producing better science, perhaps due to its unique ability to draw on multiple and previously independent resources and skill sets (American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 2013; Yamamoto, 2013). This can result in more innovative research with greater impact on a variety of different fields. Combining previously independent fields of expertise leads to the linkage of research approaches and conceptual tools that can produce new research questions and theories (Pickett, Burch, & Grove, 1999). Simply citing research outside one’s own discipline leads to a paper’s having more of an influence in the field, at least using the conventional measure of how often that paper itself is cited (Shi, Adamic, Tseng, & Clarkson, 2009).

One obvious benefit of interdisciplinarity is the capacity to produce better practical applications. As noted by Karl Popper (1963, p. 88), “We are not students of some subject matter, but students of problems. And problems may cut right across the borders of any subject matter or discipline” (see also Brint et al., 2009; Ellis, 2009). This problem-solving ethos applies particularly well to research in law and social science (LSS), which has been interdisciplinary since its inception (e.g., Grisso, 1991; Tapp & Levine, 1977). In LSS, many researchers are simultaneously advancing scientific theories and conceptual models while addressing important real-world behaviors (e.g., legal decision making, criminal offending and rehabilitation, jurisprudence, etc.; see Bornstein, in press). The rapidly growing field of empirical legal studies is increasingly drawing on diverse social science disciplines (e.g., Eisenberg, 2011; Ho & Kramer, 2013). Law schools are becoming increasingly multi- and interdisciplinary, whereby it is no longer enough to do “law-and-X” research; rather, it must be “law-and-X+Y (and maybe Z).”

In theory, the additional knowledge one gains from interdisciplinary training should confer a competitive advantage, especially as science as a whole becomes increasingly interdisciplinary (Committee on Facilitating Interdisciplinary Research, 2004; Wuchty et al., 2007). Research teams now cross not only social science (e.g., psychology-political science) or natural science (e.g., chemistry-biology) boundaries, but also combine the social and natural sciences (American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 2013; Committee on Facilitating Interdisciplinary Research, 2004). For example, analyzing and understanding the mechanisms of the placebo effect has required specialized knowledge of both biomedicine and psychology (Harrington, 1997).

The objective success of interdisciplinary training and research is not easy to discern, due to difficulty choosing the appropriate metrics (Jacobs & Frickel, 2009; Jaffe, 2009). What measures do exist show that the effects are positive. Tangible professional outcomes from interdisciplinary research include awards and publications in top journals (Lattuca, 2001). On a more subjective level, scientists working on interdisciplinary projects feel that their work is more...
stimulating and constructively challenging than scientists conducting more traditional, monodisciplinary research (Schunn, Crowley, & Okada, 2005). Young scientists report feeling that interdisciplinary research results in greater societal benefits in the ability to target the needs of real-world problems. One student in an interdisciplinary training program commented “I have become very aware of the horrible inefficiency of the scientific enterprise in turning knowledge into useful products…so I came to branch out from what I was doing, to do something bigger and better…and more practically important” (Rhoten & Parker, 2004, p. 2046). Interdisciplinary work often has the effect of “expanding an individual’s intellectual universe” (Lattuca, 2001, p. 216) and leading to more creative thinking (Paletz, Schunn, & Kim, 2013).

One threat to interdisciplinary research, and especially interdisciplinary training, has to do with its effects on one’s career trajectory. Conceptually, the additional knowledge and expertise gained from interdisciplinary training should translate to certain marketable advantages. There is anecdotal evidence that the academic job market, at least in the social sciences, has become more competitive. One might assume that the additional skills and knowledge gained by interdisciplinary training would make students more competitive for faculty and other research-oriented positions. Indeed, there is some evidence that students trained in dual disciplines tend to have more career paths available to them, especially in academia, than students trained in a single discipline (Bornstein, Wiener, & Maeder, 2008; Tomkins & Ogloff, 1990). Rhoten and Parker (2004) surveyed graduate students and professors across five university-based programs and found that a significant majority felt that an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary approach had a positive influence on the development of their career opportunities and professional options.

However, there is often a perception that interdisciplinary scholars are hyperspecialized and have spread their expertise too thin (Jaffe, 2009). When students graduate from interdisciplinary programs, they find themselves looking for jobs in a marketplace that contains few programs like the one from which they graduated but, rather, many traditional academic departments. Thus, they may feel that despite the draw of interdisciplinary research, it “comes at a price – it may take us longer to establish ourselves in our careers” (Rhoten & Parker, 2004, p. 2046). While they may be highly desirable for specifically interdisciplinary departments, their skills may not be as desirable in the traditional academic job market. As Jaffe (2009, p. 13) aptly puts it, “the very interdisciplinary work that stands to help a developing science stands to harm the developing scientist.”

These competing views on the career pros and cons of interdisciplinary training are both logical, but little data on the question exist. One source of data is job openings for researchers, especially within the academy. Do job openings for interdisciplinary scholars exist? Is interdisciplinary training an advantage in the hiring process? The present study examines the competitiveness of academic job applicants with interdisciplinary backgrounds by analyzing academic job postings from a number of sources. Postings were coded in terms of their stated interest in interdisciplinary training. This study also examined whether academic employers’ approach to interdisciplinary training varied as a function of type of institution and primary discipline (e.g., psychology, criminal justice, law). Our first hypothesis was that academic employers would view interdisciplinary training as desirable. We also examined the breakdown across disciplines. Our second hypothesis was that more heavily research-oriented institutions would be more welcoming of interdisciplinary training than other institutions with less of a research focus. We also examined, for exploratory purposes, differences across disciplines.

**Method**

The sample consisted of 537 job postings collected from the following Internet and print sources: American Psychological Association, Association for Psychological Science, Higher Ed Jobs, and the Chronicle of Higher Education. All of these organizations/websites post academic job openings, and they are relied on heavily by job seekers (Kuther, n.d.). Postings were broken down by discipline, with 120 law school, 150 psychology, 74 sociology, 114 political science, 63 criminal justice, and 16 public policy department postings. The collection period took place between June and October of 2014 and included all postings in the analyzed disciplines during that period.

**Procedure**

Job postings were coded for their interdisciplinary emphasis. Entries were coded as “interdisciplinary desirable” if the ad explicitly singled out interdisciplinary training as an advantage (e.g., “the preferred candidate will hold both a J.D. and a Ph.D.”); “Candidates whose research demonstrates a strong potential for interdisciplinary connections are especially encourage to apply”); “interdisciplinary neutral” if the ad was silent on the matter (e.g., “area of specialization open”); or “interdisciplinary not beneficial” if the ad implied that interdisciplinary training would not be helpful (this category was used mostly for ads that specified a very narrow research focus, e.g., “expertise in the specific area of obesity is desired”). Depending on features of the position, ads in this latter category might actually find an interdisciplinary candidate attractive (e.g., an obesity researcher with training in medicine, psychology, and/or law/public policy); however, we chose this coding to adopt a conservative test of our hypothesis. No ads indicated that interdisciplinary was actually a disadvantage.

**Results**

A chi-square test of goodness-of-fit was performed to analyze the distribution of job postings, and categorization was not equally distributed, ($\chi^2(2)=176.52$, $p<.001$). As hypothesized, interdisciplinary training was, on the whole, viewed either neutrally or as an advantage, with the majority of job postings across disciplines categorized as “interdisciplinary neutral” at 53.8%, followed by “interdisciplinary desirable” at 38.3%. The fewest postings were categorized as “interdisciplinary not beneficial” at 7.8%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Interdisciplinary Desirable</th>
<th>Interdisciplinary Ambiguous</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Law</td>
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<td>66.7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Political Science</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal Justice</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Public Policy</td>
<td>56.3%</td>
<td>43.8%</td>
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**Table 1. Job Posting Categorization by Discipline Carnegie Classification of Higher Education**

Institutions were categorized according to the Carnegie Classification of Higher Education. Institutions with at least 20 research doctorates awarded per academic year were categorized into Category I. Category IIa included institutions with at least 50 masters degrees awarded per academic year. Category IIb referred to institutions where Bachelors degrees represent at least 10% of all undergraduate degrees, and Category III included institutions where an Associates degree is the highest degree awarded. A between groups design and an alpha value of .05 was used for all analyses.
Postings from institutions that did not fit into a Carnegie Classification, totaling 17 postings, were dropped from further analysis. This included stand-alone law schools that are not affiliated with a comprehensive university, as well as nonacademic research-based institutes. 306 postings were classified as Category I, 145 as Category IIA, 69 as Category IIB, and 9 as Category III. Table 2 shows the contingency table for these results by posting categorization. There was a significant relationship between job posting categorization and Carnegie Classification, \(\chi^2(3) = 14.89, p = .002\). As hypothesized, institutions with more of a research focus had a greater desire for interdisciplinary training.

### Discussion

Academic institutions appear to be responding to science’s increasingly multidisciplinary approach. The results of this study indicate that interdisciplinary training would not be an impediment to students’ success on the job market and may in fact help them to achieve a competitive edge. Close to 40% of all job openings analyzed specifically desired interdisciplinary training as part of their search criteria. This is particularly beneficial as interdisciplinary teaching and scholarship continue to infiltrate the traditional disciplinary framework, at all kinds of institutions of higher learning (American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 2013; Committee on Facilitating Interdisciplinary Research, 2004). Interdisciplinary training would help with graduate students’ preparation for teaching careers in multi- and interdisciplinary programs (e.g., legal studies; criminology, law and society; social justice), where students come from diverse disciplinary backgrounds and are required to become well-versed in a variety of scholarly approaches (Wareing, 2009).

While it makes sense that 45.1% of research doctorate based institutions and only 11.1% of associates degree based institutions would request interdisciplinary training due to the emphasis on research and specialization, it is interesting to note that 28.3% of masters based institutions specifically requested interdisciplinary training as compared to 36.7% of bachelors degree based institutions. It is possible that masters based institutions may be more focused on highly specialized fields with less opportunity for interdisciplinary research, while there may be greater need for smaller liberal arts institutions to hire applicants who are capable of bringing more to the table than their single discipline counterparts. Such institutions now exceed the number of research-intensive universities; for example, more than half of the members of the Association of American Colleges and Universities include interdisciplinary courses as part of their general education curriculum (Hart Research Associates, 2009). Interdisciplinary training will better enable faculty to teach these general education courses, as well as to teach in the growing number of interdisciplinary programs (e.g., public policy, human rights, women and gender studies, GLBT studies). Therefore students who are trained in more than one field may gain a competitive career advantage over candidates who are trained in a single discipline or area of practice.

### Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation of this study is that interdisciplinary job postings may not necessarily translate to the hiring of more interdisciplinary scholars over single discipline scholars. A posting that simply encourages applications from those with interdisciplinary training does not necessarily mean that these applicants are interviewed or hired more frequently than more traditional, monodisciplinary applicants. Because the job candidate review process is not public, it is impossible to ascertain how well the wording of job descriptions translates into actual hiring decisions. However, there is no reason to suppose that academic programs are deliberately being misleading in the qualifications that they list for recruitment purposes.

Future studies should address whether the apparent interdisciplinary advantage translates to more interdisciplinary hires and not just more potential employment opportunities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carnegie Classification</th>
<th>Interdisciplinary Desirable</th>
<th>Interdisciplinary Ambiguous</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I: Research Doctorates</td>
<td>45.1%</td>
<td>54.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIA: Masters Degrees</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
<td>71.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIB: Bachelors Degrees</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III: Associates Degrees</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>88.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Job Posting Categorization by Carnegie Classification

In addition, our sampling procedure took place over a relatively short period of time (5 months). Thus, it may not have been representative of the job openings for all disciplines, and the study year (2014) might have been uncharacteristic in some way. By 2014 the slowdown in academic hiring caused by the “Great Recession” of 2007-2009 had abated considerably; our impression (admittedly subjective—we know of no data on the matter) is that it was not anomalous compared to recent years. We sought to address the sampling issue by continuing sampling through the Fall, which is typically the peak hiring season for the disciplines in question. Except for public policy, for which there are fewer programs/departments nationally, each discipline had over 60 job openings, and there were more than 100 for law, psychology, and political science. These sample sizes are substantial, though certainly not exhaustive. Subsequent research is needed to show whether the present findings will hold up in larger samples, as well as in additional disciplines in both the social sciences (e.g., economics) and other areas of inquiry (e.g., natural sciences, humanities).

### Conclusion

The results of this study indicate that interdisciplinary training is not an impediment to students’ success on the job market and instead may help them to achieve a competitive edge. Academic, research-based postings were more likely to be open to considering interdisciplinary scholars, 92% overall, with 88% specifically requesting applicants with interdisciplinary training. Public Policy and Sociology departments were most likely to seek interdisciplinary applicants, while Criminal Justice departments were least likely. In addition, institutions categorized as research doctorate based had the most job postings that specifically requested an interdisciplinary focus.

Academic institutions appear to be responding to science’s increasingly multidisciplinary approach. This is particularly beneficial as interdisciplinary teaching and scholarship continues to infiltrate the traditional disciplinary framework. Interdisciplinary training will thus enable future faculty to teach general education courses, as well as in a growing number of interdisciplinary programs.

### References


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odds of getting into a graduate program decreased drastically. Not wanting to
a truly integrated curriculum. If I limited my choices to those schools only, my
in law and psychology, and even fewer that provide a joint-degree program with
Jaymes Fairfax-Columbo, AP-LS Student Committee Law Liaison
Aside from my birth (because that is literally the most formative moment of anyone’s life), my rejection from the Drexel University JD/PhD program in the spring of 2010 was perhaps the most formative moment of my admittedly young academic career. The rejection was a major blow to my pride—after all, I had never truly failed at anything before. But it was also a chance to take inventory of myself, and to examine my motivations for wanting to study in law and psychology at the graduate level. Was I really invested in a career at the intersection of law and psychology? Had I merely convinced myself of that since every undergraduate psychology paper I had written had legal implications and because I had interned in my home county’s District Attorney’s Office? Worse yet, was wanting a JD/PhD simply a case of vanity, of me wanting to claim as many letters after my name as possible?

While I’m still not entirely sure about that last question, the two years that I worked at Philadelphia’s Treatment Research Institute in between my undergraduate and graduate studies provided crystal-clear answers to my other questions. TRI provided me opportunities to work on projects where I observed firsthand the intersection of law and psychology in a number of domains, exposing me to such topics as addiction and recidivism; diversionary courts; misconceptions about the dangerousness of people with Serious Mental Illness and using technology in a pediatrician’s office to screen for early indications of delinquency and substance abuse risk. I began to develop a mindset that research was only as useful as it was translatable and implementable, and began to take note of the numerous practical limitations of translating and implementing psychological research into the legal system. It set my resolve to obtain both degrees, the psychology degree so that I had a background in research, and the law degree so that I had both a background in policy as well as an insider’s understanding of the structure my research interests were supposed to impact.

However, when it came time to reapply to graduate programs, I was dismayed to learn that only a handful of schools in the country offer joint-degree programs in law and psychology, and even fewer that provide a joint-degree program with a truly integrated curriculum. If I limited my choices to those schools only, my odds of getting into a graduate program decreased drastically. Not wanting to take that chance, I expanded my school search, targeting PhD programs with strong forensic or addictions-related backgrounds, as well as searching for law schools containing professors with psychogal interests. I also consulted a good friend of my mentor (Dr. David DeMatteo) and one of my superiors at TRI, Dr. David Festinger. Knowing his reputation in the field of drug diversion and appreciating his status as the head of TRI’s Law and Ethics division, I asked him what the difference between himself and Dr. DeMatteo was. His reply? There was no difference—save the fact that he had to go out and acquire the legal knowledge he needed for his career on his own instead of getting it the traditional (and significantly more expensive) way.

This was my first exposure to the idea that individuals who work at the intersection of law and psychology can come from different training backgrounds yet still have equally influential and successful careers. The joint-degree was not a trump card—it was simply a different road. This became all the more clear to me when I started my studies and shelled out large quantities of money for law-psychology texts in both my psychology classes and my law classes that were not written exclusively by JD/PhDs, but rather co-written by lawyers and psychologists in tandem. Today, my appreciation for the different but vital skill sets that lawyers and psychologists bring to the table has grown exponentially.

One of my major goals as Law Liaison for the Student Committee is to increase the attention that AP-LS pays to these different backgrounds, and to highlight how different training roads can converge and lead to the same endpoint (in this case, successful careers as psycholegal researchers and practitioners). The rest of this piece will seek to do just that by providing training and career reflections from three well-respected and successful psycholegal academics at Drexel University who come from different training backgrounds: Adam Benforado (a lawyer by training); David DeMatteo (a lawyer and a psychologist by training); and Kirk Heilbrun (a psychologist by training).

Professor Adam Benforado, J.D.
I didn’t love law school at first—or even really like it. There was a moment almost every day in the early months when I’d be sitting with my casebook or in class and I’d think: What have I done?

A big part of my disillusionment came from this nagging feeling that what I was learning didn’t matter, that what I was being taught was a façade, intricate but false. Was the law really consistent and logical, subject to deduction, and guided by reason? Were legal actors really the rational agents that they were depicted to be in cases and statutes? I became increasingly skeptical.

Thankfully, rather than continuing to go through the motions or drop out, I began working with Jon Hanson—my Torts professor—helping him on a new project aimed at introducing insights from the mind sciences to law and legal theory. Reading the psychological literature, I found the confirmation that I was looking for: our rules, processes, and procedures were not built upon a realistic model of human behavior. They were largely based on untested myths—commonsense assumptions that didn’t align with the best scientific evidence.

I spent the summer of my first-year co-authoring a law review article with Jon—looking at the psychological origins of the obesity epidemic in the United States—and I found myself suddenly loving law school. In my remaining two years at Harvard, I spent most of my time researching and writing at the intersection of law and psychology, and upon graduation I was awarded a Knox Fellowship, which took me to the Cambridge Faculty of Law.
I knew at this point that I wanted to become a law professor as soon as possible and I went into my clerkship on the D.C. Circuit and my job as an associate in the D.C. office of Jenner & Block committed to making that a reality. Some of my former professors advised me to wait to go on the teaching market—I was only 28, after all, and my published work to date was all co-authored. What was the rush? Given that I was doing interdisciplinary work, maybe I should go get a PhD.

In some respects, they were right—some committees did seem to worry that my scholarly productivity would dip once I was out on my own and, at my UCLA interview, the chair of the committee did ask me, point blank, how I could do my work without a graduate degree in psychology. But I got call backs and that summer I moved up to Philadelphia to become a newly-minted assistant professor at Drexel.

Moreover, the questions that had been raised about me in the hiring processes proved to be very useful as I plotted out the beginning of my career. I decided that I needed to focus my attention on two things: (1) writing some papers independently and (2) doing empirical research collaborating with psychologists. With respect to the latter aim, my previous published work had all involved applying existing findings to legal topics, and I was very interested in starting to shape the questions that were being asked. I had a fairly rigorous scientific background (indeed, I’d worked at the Smithsonian Institute’s Invertebrate Zoology Laboratory and co-authored a couple of papers on copepod morphology when I was still a teenager) so I felt confident in my understanding of the psychological literature I’d been devouring since law school, but I didn’t have any training in designing and running experiments. I needed help for that. And I was very lucky to connect with a handful of psychologists who were interested in similar topics and keen to collaborate.

I met Geoff Goodwin, the University of Pennsylvania cognitive psychologist I would end up working with the most, at a party and our first interactions were actually focused on sports (we both supported the same infuriatingly inconsistent soccer team, Liverpool). But informal conversations about the Premiership soon turned to chatting about why people are driven to punish others and eventually to organizing experiments, an NSF grant, presentations, and a first paper.

I’ve learned an immense amount working with Geoff and my other psychologist co-PIs and I’ve come to realize that my formal training in law (but not psychology) brings both benefits and costs. The good thing is that the costs are largely neutralized through collaboration: in a research team, not everyone has to be equally adept at every facet of a project. I know my weaknesses (complex statistical analysis) and strengths, and one of my strengths is that I bring a different perspective to the table. I haven’t been drilled in the same way as those who have gone through a PhD program and that means that I can make mistakes that they don’t make, yes, but it also means that I don’t have the same blind spots. I can see problems and solutions that aren’t intuitive to my colleagues.

Of course, there are serious challenges to collaborations between law professors and psychologists. In moral psychology, sometimes studies that are very interesting to the legal community are not interesting to the psychological community and vice versa, and so a choice must be made that doesn’t serve everyone’s interests. In addition, as a law professor, I am far more inclined to move outside the laboratory and to think about how findings may implicate real world problems than are my psychologist friends.

One of the topics that I’ve thought a lot about over the years is whether law and psychology ought to have the same standards when it comes to assessing scientific evidence and I’ve become convinced that they shouldn’t. It makes sense to me that the psychological community would set the bar much higher because the costs of delay in adopting findings as settled are minimal when compared to the costs entailed in sticking with the status quo in law.

In my new book, *Unfair: The New Science of Criminal Injustice* (Crown 2015), I argue that we need to work towards an evidence-based system of criminal law and I suggest an array of changes to how we conduct interrogations, handle eyewitnesses, use expert witnesses, and screen jurors, among other reforms. Some of the research upon which I base my suggestions is not robust enough to be considered firmly established within psychology, but that doesn’t mean it shouldn’t be used to change legal protocols. The reason is simple: in many cases, existing police, prosecutorial, judicial, and other practices are based on nothing more than intuition and anecdote. With the law, a choice has to be made—stick with approaches that have no empirical validation at all and are known to have led to wrongful convictions and abuse or institute new practices that are based on studies that are solid and respected but have not yet reached the level of dogma. With so many people suffering injustice today, I think we need to take the calculated risk that we’ll revise our system based on science that, in some cases, doesn’t hold up in the long run.

When I teach criminal law, my students and I spend a lot of the course gazing back. We read cases from 1884 and 1972 and 1996. We parse statutes written in the 1960s and provisions of the constitution drafted centuries earlier. That makes it very easy to fall into a mindset of deference. The shared assumption is that our legal forebears were wiser and more pure of heart than we are today. The path of prudence, then, is to stay the course, making no more than minor tweaks to our legal rules. Even as I give them explicit permission to criticize and reimagine, the class tends to be reluctant to consider what should be. They expect to receive the catalogued wisdom of the past, so that they can go out in the world and apply it. Who are they to question the status quo?

That worries me, both as a professor and as an American. Desperate to ensure justice for all time, we have stymied progress by etching our law into stone, binding it with leather covers, and preserving it behind glass at the National Archives. While fields like medicine and transportation have made enormous leaps in recent decades and centuries, our legal system has been largely stuck in place. But our legal system is just as suited for innovation as any other area.

I see my role as a professor working at the junction of law and psychology to help facilitate that process. I chose a trade press for *Unfair* because I wanted to get the message out to a mass audience and I’ve been writing articles in major newspapers and magazines, appearing on television and radio programs, and giving talks to groups of judges, lawyers, and the general public because I feel that we have a rare moment to change things for the better. In my courses, I bring research from the mind sciences into our regular discussions because I know that will make my students better lawyers and better citizens.

I went to law school because I wanted to fight against injustice. I thought that the future would find me standing in a courtroom beside those who had no voice. Instead, I find myself behind a computer most of the day, broken up by brief spells in classrooms and lecture halls. And that’s just fine by me. I have what I was hoping for: a chance to make a difference and help people who desperately need it.

**Professor David DeMatteo, J.D., Ph.D., ABPP (Forensic)**

Throughout college, I was initially drawn to the law-psychology field because of its utility, broad scope, and the many opportunities it affords in the areas of research and practice. As my thinking about the law-psychology field matured during my undergraduate training, I became interested in conducting methodologically rigorous research aimed at helping legal decision-makers and policy-makers make better informed decisions, performing forensic mental
Given that my professional interests were squarely at the intersection of psychology and law, I pursued formal graduate training in both law and psychology. I had no desire to practice law, but I wanted to be able to think like a lawyer and have the analytical skills of a lawyer because I believed those skill sets would enhance my work in the law-psychology field. After completing my graduate training in a joint-degree (JD/PhD) program at MCP-Hahnemann University and Villanova Law School, I spent 4 years as a Research Scientist at the Treatment Research Institute (TRI), which is a non-profit research institute that works closely with the University of Pennsylvania. I spent those years conducting empirical drug-policy research focusing on the effectiveness of drug courts, the ethics of consenting individuals to drug abuse research, and the development of criminal justice interventions for offenders with less severe substance use problems. However, because I had little opportunity to teach, consult, mentor students, or conduct forensic mental health assessments, I decided to enter academics. In 2006, I was hired as a faculty member at Drexel University.

Over the past 9 years in academics, I’ve spent my time conducting research aimed at influencing policy and practice in several areas; teaching courses to undergraduate students, graduate students, and law students; mentoring undergraduate and graduate students; conducting forensic mental health assessments of juveniles and adults; consulting with attorneys, courts, and other agencies; sitting on various committees and editorial boards; and publishing and presenting my research. Moreover, as Director of Drexel’s JD/PhD Program, I helped develop a law-psychology training curriculum and serve as a mentor to the next generation of law-psychology professionals.

My approach to conducting research has been heavily influenced by my graduate training and professional experiences. Given my joint-degree training and research interests, I primarily conduct empirical social science research that has clear practice and/or policy implications. Although I initially believed that having a law degree would be most beneficial in terms of my forensic assessment work, which requires interacting with attorneys and having some degree of legal knowledge, having a law degree has proved more beneficial in my research. Some of my research is conducted with justice-involved individuals, and having a law degree has enhanced my credibility with those from whom we need permission to conduct such research (e.g., judges, court administrators).

Similarly, my approach to teaching has been influenced by my training and experiences. Rather than simply conveying knowledge, which is an important but insufficient goal in teaching, I seek to stimulate critical thinking skills and inspire students to continue learning after the course ends. To those ends, I motivate students to learn in a supportive, nurturing, challenging, and stimulating environment. I also incorporate the Socratic method, which has been traditionally limited to use in legal education, into my psychology teaching.

My joint-degree training and practical experiences have clearly shaped my approach to research and teaching. The driving philosophy behind my research and teaching is to give back and make it count. Because of my training and beliefs, I think that my time is best spent conducting research that has practice and/or policy implications, assisting legal decision-makers to make better informed decisions, and mentoring students who will be the next generation of law-psychology professionals. At base, my measure of success is whether I’ve made things a little better than they were before I got there, and I believe that I’ve been able to accomplish that goal through my research and teaching.

A doctoral degree in clinical psychology, which is what I pursued at the University of Texas at Austin, laid the groundwork for licensure and board certification (which came about in 1978 through the American Board of Forensic Psychology, which subsequently became a specialty board within the American Board of Professional Psychology). It also provided fundamental training in research, which could then be applied to various law-psychology questions. The major advantages to this path were foundational. It provided training in research, scholarship, assessment and treatment. It gave me the tools I needed to specialize. But it didn’t provide specialized training in the contemporary sense. I had to pursue even limited exposure to law through a course taught in the law school at UT, and additional courses taught in law school at Florida State University (where I did a postdoctoral fellowship following receipt of my degree—one of the very few fellowships available in this area at the time). The exposure to interdisciplinary thinking and work, which is at the heart of current training in law-psychotherapy, would have given me specific tools (e.g., research designs, scholarship priorities) and formal legal training (if I had attended law school), both of which would have been helpful.

In order to obtain the specialized training that I sought, I would need to do some extra work. To this end, I accepted a postdoctoral fellowship at Florida State University in 1981-82 under Ned Megargee. His work focused on assessment in correctional populations. Both were subsequently important in my career. The fellowship also exposed me to professional work being done in a federal prison and in a state forensic unit. These provided my earliest professional models for the applied work being done at the time.

Reflecting on how my training background and work history influence how I think about law and psychology, both gave me an appreciation for what can be accomplished through motivation and hard work. My first post-fellowship job was at the Forensic Service at Florida State Hospital, which gave me a wonderful opportunity to apply the limited tools but great interest I had to questions that were important in the law. It also taught me how important collaboration and mentorship can be. We developed a speaker series in the 1980s at the hospital, and were able to convince people like Stan Brodky, Saleem Shah, Loren Roth, Tom Grisso, Dick Rogers, and Norman Poythress to visit and talk about their work. It was a great opportunity to ask them about things relevant to a career in this area.

These experiences and the lessons I learned still play an integral role in my career today. I have a practical component to what I teach and research that was shaped by my experience in applied settings. They also engendered in me an interest in policy—an interest that has continued to this day.

The researchers explored the psychometric properties of the Therapist Perception of Treatment Outcome: Youth Antisocial Behavior (TPTO-YAB). The TPTO-YAB is used to assess therapist’s judgments of treatment success for families receiving Multisystemic Therapy (MST) for youths with behavioral difficulties. Results provided support for the validity of the TPTO-YAB scores and these scores were correlated with youth and caregiver behaviors targeted in treatment, thus supporting its’ use as a treatment outcome measurement.


Examined impact of single-session brief motivational interview (BMI) on treatment compliance for IPV offenders mandated to treatment. Randomly assigned 60 male IPV offenders (including 25 binge drinkers) to either a single-session BMI or control intervention before commencement in IPV treatment program, with treatment compliance measured at six months follow up. Binge drinkers had lower treatment compliance than non-binge-drinkers, and binge-drinking BMI participants attended more treatment sessions and indicated lower dropout rates than binge-drinking controls.


The researchers investigated the relationship between living group environment and aversive responses to social situations in a sample of 128 adolescent boys and girls living in a residential facility. Results showed open living group environments (e.g., structured, safe, therapeutic) were related to less aversive responses in problematic social situations. The authors stressed the importance of group workers being trained in providing an open living group climate.


Authors compared rates of mental-health complications, substance-use problems, and childhood maltreatment in a group of 422 justice-involved adolescent males. Results suggested histories of childhood maltreatment to predict mental health problems in both childhood-onset and adolescent-onset offenders. Notably, although mental health problems were more prevalent in childhood-onset offenders, childhood trauma better predicted mental health in adolescent-onset offenders.


Using self-report, structured interview, and official record data, authors examined the ability of traumatic exposure, suicide attempt, and offending characteristics to predict rates of internalizing and disruptive behavior disorder in 8,431 justice involved youth. Results suggested nonsexual to be significantly higher in youth with comorbid behavior disorders in comparison to youth with internalizing disorders alone, whereas both sexual and nonsexual violence were higher in youth with comorbid behavior disorders in comparison to youth with disruptive behavior disorders alone. Implications for assessment and treatment referral are considered.

This study investigated the patient perspective of the metacognitive group training, as well as its effects on health-related quality of life (HRQOL) in 20 violent inpatients with schizophrenia. While training satisfaction and compliance were high, HRQOL did not improve due to MCT. The authors encouraged that special effort be taken to improve HRQOL.


Using a sample of 811 participants of a municipal mental health court, this study found that 23.2% of participants were rearrested during court supervision. This study also identified factors associated with these rearrests, as well as the effect of rearrests during supervision on program completion and rearrests in the 1-year period following program completion. This study concludes with implications for mental health court supervision.


This study used an online survey to compare supervision approaches of 90 specially trained parole/probation officer (STO) and 132 non-specially trained parole/probation officers working directly with individuals with serious mental illness. STOs viewed mental health treatment as an effective component of supervision for offenders with serious mental illness, although they lacked the training and support to implement specialized supervision approaches.


Prospective evaluation of relationship between participation in a mental health court and risk of violence in 169 jail detainees with a mental disorder either entered into an MHC (N=88) or TAU (N=81), with 72% of the overall sample charged with felonies. Included record review and interview at baseline and one-year follow up. MHC participation was related to reduction in violence risk (odds ration=.39) using propensity-adjusted logistic regression controlling for violence history, demographics, baseline treatment motivation, and time at risk in the community. At follow-up, 25% of the MHC group and 42% of the TAU group had perpetrated violence. Findings support extension of MHC model beyond nonviolent misdemeanors.


This study assessed the effectiveness of the in-prison domestic violence treatment program STOP and Change Direction to improve incarcerated men's attitudes towards women, reduce their proclivity towards criminal thinking, and decrease recidivism. Results indicated that the program successfully increased positive attitude toward women and decreased criminal thinking, however, no evidence of reduced recidivism was observed. The authors nevertheless report beneficial clinical implications of the program for incarcerated men.


This study examined the mental health needs of 526 Italian male inmates and presented data describing the mental health status of these inmates. Axis I and II disorders and personality disorders were among the most common diagnoses, and comorbid diagnoses were frequent. Implications for addressing mental health needs in forensic populations and providing post-incarceration care were discussed.
DELMQUENCY/ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR


Examined incremental validity of four self-report measures of adolescent psychopathy in assessment of callous-unemotional (CU) traits in 279 at-risk adolescents aged 16-18. Subscales were weakly to moderately interrelated across the four measures. Results indicated CU traits as a multifaceted construct, with specific dimensions predicting different aspects of antisocial behavior. Callousness predicted aggression incrementally above other CU domains, but not other forms of antisocial behavior.


Using data from a 7-year longitudinal study of serious youthful offenders, authors compared trajectories of moral disengagement to trajectories of offending. Results suggested three trajectories: low, moderate, and high patterns. Authors also compared demographic and individual characteristics across trajectories. Those in the moderate- or high-moral disengagement trajectory had more re-arrests at 7-year follow-up in comparison to those in the low trajectory.


Using a longitudinal sample of youth, the authors examined the effects of two subtypes (Failure to Provide and Lack of Supervision) of chronic neglect on adolescent aggression and delinquency. Chronic neglect and chronic failure to provide predicted aggression/delinquency, while chronic lack of supervision did not. Gender differences and mediating circumstances were further discussed, as well as implications for interventions based on these results.


The study utilized data from the National Comorbidity Study Replication to examine the prevalence of impulsive behaviors and possessing or carrying a gun in adults with mental disorders. The results revealed numerous associations between mental disorders and angry, impulsive behaviors with those with gun access. The authors discuss possible remedies to prevent gun violence.


Research utilized data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health to examine the relation between peer delinquency and self-reported delinquency when controlling for active gene-environment correlation. Results suggest peer effects on self-reported delinquency are no longer statistically significant after controlling for confounding gene-environment correlations. Implications suggest significant results of prior studies may be accounted for by selection bias; implications for popular learning theories of delinquency are also discussed.


This longitudinal study examined consequences of child abuse and neglect in a high-risk group of girls with self or parent reported histories of abuse and neglect. Child abuse and neglect was associated with increased internalizing symptoms and sexual experience at baseline and with externalizing symptoms and risky sexual behavior both at baseline and the final point. Child abuse and neglect was not significantly associated with alcohol or drug use.

This study examined offending behavior and psychosocial problems in juvenile offenders who have been sexually abused, physically abused, neglected, exposed to multiple forms of maltreatment, and non-victims. Victims of physical abuse and victims of multiple forms of abuse had more violent offenses and externalizing problems, while victims of sexual abuse committed more sexual offenses and had internalizing problems.

**FORENSIC ASSESSMENT**


This study examined reliability of competency to stand trial, not guilty by reason of insanity, and postacquittal conditional release evaluations conducted by three types of examiners: community-based psychiatrists, community-based psychologists, and psychologists employed by the court. Evaluation findings revealed significant variability in agreement between examiners and judges. Authors suggested that forensic mental health assessment may be improved by procedural standardization, application of structured professional methods, use for forensic assessment instruments, and de-bias assessment.


The study investigated the relationship between the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 Restructured Form (MMPI-2-RF) and the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (5th ed.; *DSM–5*) personality disorder (PD) criterion in both inpatient (190 males and females) and forensic psychiatric patients (162 males). Overall, the results provided support for the use of the MMPI–2–RF scales in assessing PDs.


Authors examined the convergent validity of the Risk-Sophistication-Treatment Inventory-Abbreviated (RSTI-A) by comparing RSTI data to measures of violence, criminality, psychopathy, and psychosocial and emotional adjustment. Results suggest the RSTI to demonstrate both convergent and incremental validity, suggesting the scale may be appropriate for risk assessment research.


A survey was sent to 50 states and Washington, DC regarding evaluator selection, certification processes, and payment for Competency to Stand Trial (CST) evaluators. Results were compared to previous studies for longitudinal analysis. Most states did not have a formal process for selecting or certifying CST evaluators, required loose professional qualifications for evaluation and offered low monetary compensation. Authors emphasized the importance of retaining high standards for forensic mental health assessment.


262 young male prisoners completed an implicit cognitive aggression measure (Puzzle Test) and explicit aggression measures, covering current behaviour (DIPC-R) and aggression disposition (AQ). Implicit aggressive cognitive processing was associated with increased dispositional aggression while impulsive implicit cognitive processing of an aggressive nature predicted increased dispositional aggression. Authors emphasized accounting for implicit cognitive processing among prisoners and the need to separate implicit cognitive processing into impulsive versus cognitively effortful facets.


The internal structure of the Millon Adolescent Clinical Inventory (MACI) was explored using a sample of 1,015 detained adolescent boys. The researchers attempted to replicate prior factor models in half of the sample, finding the model did not fit the data. Following an exploratory factor analysis that revealed a 2-factor model, a confirmatory factor analysis was run on the second part of the sample which had acceptable fit.

Jail sanction, mental health court success, and rearrest were tracked for 654 participants and a variety of predictive factors were identified. Jail sanctions were more likely for younger participants, participants with prior arrest or incarceration, participants arraigned on property charges, and unemployed participants. Homeless participants and previously incarcerated participants had higher rates of failure in mental health court. Young age, having a prior arrest, and having a co-occurring substance use disorder predicted two-year rearrest.


The triarchic psychopathy constructs of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition were measured using the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI) and the PPI Revised (PPI-R) in a community sample weighted toward psychopathy traits and a male prison sample. Results indicated that PPI–Boldness, PPI–Meanness, and PPI–Disinhibition converged with other psychopathy, personality, and behavioral criteria. The PPI and PPI–R were recommended for measuring these triarchic constructs.


Authors developed the Generic Program Performance Measure to assess allow correctional programs to systematically rate offenders’ skill development, attitude change, motivation level, and program participation. Psychometric analyses suggest the measure to be internally consistent and sensitive to treatment gain in all areas for various demographics. Acceptable inter-rater reliability was also noted. Potential use for the GPPM in future correctional program evaluations is discussed.


The study investigated whether the effect of Factors 1 and 2 on the Psychopathy Checklist: Youth Version (PCL: YV) on violent offending was mediated by reactive or proactive antisocial cognition. Analyses consisted of a 3-wave path analysis using data from 1,354 adjudicated delinquents. Results revealed proactive antisocial cognition had a strong role in mediating Factor 1 and proactive antisocial cognition, along with other variables not accounted for in the study, mediated Factor 2.

**LAW ENFORCEMENT, CONFESSIONS, & DECEPTION**


Authors assessed the quality of parolee-parole officer relationships across parolees who were randomly assigned to a condition designed to improve relationship quality or supervision as usual condition. Those in the experimental condition had a lower violation rate and perceived their relationships to be of higher quality in comparison to the control condition. In both conditions, higher relationship quality predicted fewer drug days and fewer violations during the follow-up period. Implications on supervision relationships are discussed.


Examined factor structure, internal consistency, and convergent validity of the Dutch MAYSI-2 administered as routine clinical assessments to 955 male detained adolescents. Confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated the original MAYSI-2 factor structure was replicated with the Dutch version. Internal consistency analyses demonstrated the Dutch version as a reliable screening for mental health needs. Dutch MAYSI-2 scales were also related in convergent validity analyses with conceptually parallel measures of the same targeted mental health needs, and convergent and internal consistency analyses were largely supported across ethnic groups.


The utility of Assessment Criteria Indicative of Deception (ACID) training was examined in two experiments comparing untrained officers to ACID-trained officers in their ability to detect deception in colleagues. ACID-trained officers correctly assessed statement credibility...
89% of cases, compared to 53% in non-trained officers. Authors discussed the practical implications of these findings and suggestions for future research.

Steiner, B. & Wooldredge, J. (2015) Individual and environmental sources of work stress among prison officers. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 42(8), 800-818. Research draws from the Job Demand-Control-Support Model to explore effects of work stress on prison officers working in Ohio and Kentucky prisons. Using multilevel analyses, results suggest officer victimization, severity of job demands, and facility violence were related to increased stress, whereas perceived control over inmates and coworker support were associated with reduced stress.

Kelsey, K. R., Rogers, R., & Robinson, E. V. (2015). Self-report measures of psychopathy: What is their role in forensic assessments? Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 37(3), 380-391. Evaluated ability of jail detainees with moderate and high psychopathy levels to engage in positive impression management (PIM) on three self-report measures (SRP-4, LSRP, PPI-R). Overall, detainees were successful in masking psychopathy and achieved average scores lower than college and community samples. Those with higher psychopathy levels achieved larger decreases than others in general on psychopathy measures. Findings suggest self-report measures of psychopathy are susceptible to PIM.

Logue, M., Book, A. S., Frosina, P., Huizinga, T., & Amos, S. (2015). Using reality monitoring to improve deception detection in the context of the cognitive interview for suspects. Law and Human Behavior, 39, 360–367. doi: 10.1037/lhb0000127 Undergraduates (N = 166) either played a game with a confederate (truthful condition) or rehearsed a synopsis of the game scenario and stole $10 (deceptive condition). In both conditions, $10 was allegedly missing and participants were interviewed using a cognitive interview adapted to suspects. Statement veracity was coded using six Reality Monitoring (RM) criteria. Truthful and deceptive statements differed significantly on all criteria, except affective details. Combining the RM criteria together correctly classified 86.6% of statements with excellent sensitivity and specificity.

Olver, M. E., Sewall, L. A., Sarty, G. E., Lewis, K., & Wong, S. C. P. (2015). A cluster analytic examination and external validation of psychopathic offender subtypes in a multisite sample of Canadian federal offenders. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 124(2), 355-371. Rated four combined samples of Canadian male federally incarcerated offenders (most serving for violent offenses) with the Hare Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCLR) using file information, extracting 314 cases with a PCL-R total cut score of 25. Cluster analysis converged at 2-cluster solution: primary subtype (prominent interpersonal/affective features) and secondary subtype (fewer interpersonal features and high scores on remaining facets). In validation analyses, 74.1% of the primary subtype were White or of non-Aboriginal descent compared with 47.6% of the secondary subtype. Secondary offenders tended to have actuarial higher risk, greater criminogenic needs, and make greater amounts of treatment change on criminogenic targets. Within-treatment changes from a violence reduction program were associated with reductions in violent recidivism for primary but not secondary variants.

Pimentel, P. S., Arndorfer, A., & Malloy, L. C. (2015). Taking the blame for someone else’s wrongdoing: The effects of age and reciprocity. Law and Human Behavior, 39, 219–231. doi: 10.1037/lhb0000132 In this study adults (n = 99) and adolescents (n = 74) were randomly assigned to either receive or not receive a small favor from a confederate (reciprocity), witnessed the confederate cheat on a task, and then decided whether to sign a written confession to the confederate’s cheating. Adolescents (59%) were more likely to falsely confess than adults (39%). No effect of reciprocity was found.

Participants (N = 90) were asked to perform several mock criminal tasks before being interviewed using one of three Strategic Use of Evidence techniques: SUE-Confrontation, Early Disclosure of Evidence, or No Disclosure of Evidence. SUE-Confrontation interview generated more statement evidence inconsistencies from suspects than Early Disclosure interview. Suspects in the SUE-Confrontation condition admitted more self-incriminating information and perceived the interviewer as having more information about the phase of the crime where s/he actually lacked evidence. Vallano, J. P., Evans, J. R., Compo, N. S., Kieckhaefer, J. M. (2015). Rapport-building during witness and suspect interviews: A survey of law enforcement. Applied Cognitive Psychology, 29(3), 369-380. doi: 10.1002/acp.3115

Responses from 123 law-enforcement interviewers to open and closed-ended questions were used to examine how interviewers conceptualize and build rapport with adult interviewees. Most interviewers defined rapport as the building of a relationship with the interviewee: the majority as a positive relationship involving trust and commitment; the strong minority as a ‘positive or negative’ relationship. Both verbal and non-verbal techniques were reported for building rapport with witnesses and suspects alike.


As part of a 2 (identification accuracy: accurate vs. inaccurate) X 2 (line-up presentation: simultaneous vs. sequential) X 3 (line-up administration: double-blind, single-blind, feedback) X 3 (evidence type: ID, testimony, ID+Testimony) between-subjects design, 432 undergraduates rated their perceptions of the eyewitness and the identification. Viewing the videos neither increased discrimination between in/accurate witness identifications nor reduced belief of identifications obtained from suggestive procedures.


In part A mock-jurors (N = 320) were exposed to Neg-PTP or No-PTP before viewing a criminal trial. They then deliberated or not, before making an individual decision. Neg-PTP jurors were more likely to vote guilty, make memory errors, and rate the defendant lower in credibility. Deliberation reduced Neg-PTP jurors’ memory accuracy and No-PTP jurors’ guilty verdicts. Part B content analyzed 30 mock-jury deliberations: Neg-PTP juries were more likely to discuss ambiguous trial evidence in a pro-prosecution manner and less likely to discuss judicial instructions and lack of evidence.


The study compared a sample of forensic inpatients who displaying continued and severe aggression in the facility to a sample of non-aggressive inpatients. A discriminant model correctly predicted the majority of those classified as aggressive and non-aggressive. Predictors included variables typically related to violence, such as personality disorders, though also included the variables of suicide attempts and juvenile psychiatric hospitalizations.


The study examined scoring tendencies and predictive validity for evaluators on the Psychopathy Checklist: Screening Version (PCL:SV) using data from the MacArthur Violence Risk Assessment Study. Results showed limited evidence for the relationship between PCL:SV scoring and predictive validity, though the authors concluded that differences in scoring have implications for interpreting scores. The authors urge evaluators to consider their scoring tendencies on psychopathy measures.


Examined validity of PCRA for predicting arrest for new criminal conduct and violent offenses at 6, 12, 18, and 24 months using assessments completed by U.S. probation officers on 113,281 offenders. Estimated bivariate and multivariate models for race, gender, and ethnicity. AUC-ROC values ranged from .70 to .77 depending on subsample, outcome predicted, and follow-up time. Findings
indicate the PCRA predicts well across race, gender, and ethnicity and follow-up time periods and is a valid predictor of arrest for any criminal behavior and violent criminal behavior.


The study examined the predictive validity of the Short-Term Assessment of Risk and Treatability (START) for self-harm and aggression in male and female psychiatric inpatients. The results showed START was a strong predictor of self-harm and aggression. Specific risk estimates had a large effect size in predicting these outcomes in women, but the AUC values did not reveal a large effect size for males.


The researchers explored the relationship between the Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth (SAVRY) risk and protective items, clusters of items, and predictive ability for violence. Using a sample of 963 adolescent boys and girls, the results shed light on the factor structure of the SAVRY and revealed the SAVRY predicted violence for 4 to 7 years.


The authors investigated the predictive factors associated with successful completion of day report center programs (DRC) designed to reduce recidivism risk, using samples drawn from 22 DRC programs. The manner in which clients exited the program was also examined in relation to recidivism risk. Results indicated that the most valid predictor of a successful outcome was offender risk based on the Level of Service/Case Management Inventory.


Scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2–Restructured Form (MMPI-2-RF) prehire and posthire were examined using a sample of 131 male police officers. The results showed associations between MMPI-2-RF substantive scale scores and supervisor ratings for job performance, especially for emotional dysfunction and interpersonal functioning.


Psychometric analysis of the Structured Risk Assessment-Forensic Version was conducted using a sample of 566 sexual offenders. Results suggested the SRA-FV to have good predictive validity (scores significantly predicted sexual recidivism for both child molesters and rapists) and incremental predictive value relative to the Static-99R and Risk Matrix 2000/S.


The study explored whether predicting violence using historical information can be improved by incorporating dynamic risk, protective factors, and structured professional judgment (SPJ). The Short-Term Assessment of Risk and Treatability (START) was used in an outpatient forensic psychiatry setting with 3 and 6 month follow-up periods. Results revealed correlations for all predictor variables were in the anticipated directions.

**SEX OFFENDERS**


This exploratory investigation into adult offending patterns examined the offending patterns of 38 serious sexual assault (SSA) perpetrators not initially identified at the time of the offense. Approximately one-third of the SSA offenders received a post-offense...
conviction for a sexual-contact offense. Younger index offenders had greater chronicity and versatility of subsequent offenses. Explanations for the findings and implications for suspect prioritization were discussed.


This study considered the similarities and differences in the grooming process in online environments by analyzing the language used by 44 convicted online offenders communicating with their victims. Transcripts were content analyzed to examine the frequency of techniques employed by both face-to-face and online offenders. Results revealed differing strategies used by online offenders compared to face-to-face counterparts. Development of a revised model for grooming in online environments was recommended.


The study explored the Static-99R reporting and interpretation practices of 109 experts who conduct sexually violent predator (SVP) evaluations. The results indicated that these practices differed depending on which side the evaluator typically conducted evaluations for (e.g., prosecution, defense, or state-agency evaluators). Therefore, the authors concluded there is adversarial allegiance in Static-99R practices.


Authors compared demographic and criminogenic features in women convicted of promoting prostitution of a minor to women convicted of traditional sexual offenses. Results suggest women convicted of prostitution offenses tended to exhibit more general antisocial features and have histories more consistent with general criminality than women convicted of traditional sexual offenses. Authors explore such differences in the context of legal definitions for sexual offenders.


Using semi-structured interviews, authors qualitatively examined internal and external factors contributing to offending in 24 female sexual offenders. Coding of interviews using grounded theory analysis suggested a conceptual framework with distinctive processes for solo- and co-offending. Implications of framework on prevention, treatment, and research are explored.


Authors compared clinical and offender characteristics across 20 solo and 20 co- female sexual offenders. Results suggest solo offenders to have more personal vulnerabilities, such as mental health and substance abuse problems, in comparison to co-offenders. Alternatively, co-offenders tended to report higher levels of environmentally-based factors, such as involvement with antisocial peers. Implications on assessment and intervention of sexual offenders are discussed.


Prevalence of early trauma in 47 female sexual offenders was examined using the Adverse Childhood Experiences Scale. Compared to norms in the general population, female offenders were more likely to have experienced sexual abuse, verbal abuse, emotional neglect, and/or have an incarcerated family member. Greater endorsement of adverse childhood experiences was associated with having younger victims. Implications on development of trauma-informed interventions are discussed.

Using data from 51 incarcerated adolescent sexual offenders and 94 incarcerated adolescent non-sexual offenders, authors evaluated whether juvenile sexual offenders differ from juvenile nonsexual offenders in terms of developmental pathways of antisocial behavior. Latent class analysis suggested three behavioral groups for both sexual and nonsexual offenders: low antisocial, overt, and covert. Within group differences for sexual offenders resembled those differences also observed in nonsexual offenders. Implications for assessment of juvenile sexual offenders are discussed.


A survey on sexual violence was conducted among respondents aged 13–17 and 18–24 years in Kenya. Variables of interest included the key perpetrators of unwanted sexual touching (UST), unwanted attempted sex (UAS), and pressured/forced sex, the location, and the timing of incidents. Prevention and intervention were discussed in the context of the results, and specifically aiming prevention methods at intimate relationships among young people, the home, and school settings was suggested.


Authors analyzed target selection situational cues identified by sexual burglars in 224 incidents of residential burglary with sexual motivations. Results suggest sexual burglaries were most likely to happen when residencies were occupied, with deficient physical guardianship, and a victim who was alone. In circumstances that increased benefits and lowered risks, violence, theft, penetration, and fetishism were more common. Unlike more traditional burglars, offenders tended to act opportunistically on unique situational cues.


The researchers developed a structured risk assessment, the Child Pornography Offender Risk Tool (CPORT), in an effort to predict sexual recidivism for adult male offenders previously convicted of a child pornography offense. Using data from 266 adult offenders, the study investigated the predictors of sexual recidivism following a 5-year follow-up period. Results showed the CPORT was significantly related to sexual recidivism and had moderate predictive accuracy.


This study investigated relationships between Early Maladaptive Schemas and cognitive distortions in 33 convicted rapists using the Bumby Rape Scale (BRS), the Young Schema Questionnaire -Short form-3 (YSQ-S3), the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI), and the Socially Desirable Response Set Measure (SDRS-5). There was a predictive relationship between the entitlement/grandiosity schema from the YSQ-S3 and cognitive distortions related to the Justifying Rape dimension of the BRS. Further investigation into this relationship was recommended.


Using 150 files of police investigations into notifications of child pornography offenses, authors compared rates of victimization across mixed suspects (child pornography possession suspects with a history of victimizing) and child-pornography only suspects (child pornography possession suspects without a history of victimizing. Results suggest mixed subjects tended to have a higher prevalence of victimization than child-pornography only suspects. In child-pornography only suspects, victimization was predicted by police contacts/charges/convictions for noncontact sexual offending, confiscation of 2+ computers, and serious nature of child pornography material.

Wijkman, M., Weerman, F., Bijleveld, C., & Hendriks, J. (2015). *Group sexual offending by juvenile females*. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*, 27(3), 335-356. Authors examined court files for all group sexual offending cases in the Netherlands in which at least one juvenile female offender had been adjudicated. According to files, most juvenile female group sexual offenders had interpersonal problems and sexual abuse experiences. Three motivational themes were noted: harassment, revenge, and sexual gratification; motivation for group participation tended to surround either group dynamics or instrumental reasons.

Authors utilized the National Incident-Based Reporting System to compare male and female sex offenders on incident characteristics. Results suggest both male and female offenders were most likely to offend at home, to offend against an acquaintance, and to rarely cause physical injury or abuse drugs throughout the course of the incident. However, female offenders were more likely than male offenders to use an accomplice and to offend against same-sex victims.

**WITNESS ISSUES**


Three experiments (N = 1255) showed that adding a justification to a statement of confidence can increase misunderstanding in others’ estimation of the meaning of the expression of confidence. This justification-induced increase in misunderstanding only occurs when the justification refers to an observable facial feature and not when it refers to an unobservable quality (I remember his chin vs. I remember him). Experiments 2 and 3 showed that this featural justification effect is strongest when eyewitnesses express absolute certainty in their identification.


Two studies examined whether the functional field of view (FFOV) shrinks due to the presence of a weapon (Experiment 1; N = 23) or increased emotional arousal (Experiment 2; N = 15) by having participants identify digits presented at the periphery of photos displayed. While presence of a weapon significantly impaired identification of peripheral digits, emotional arousal did not. The findings suggest weapon presence, not emotional arousal, shrinks the FFOV.


Beliefs about the eyewitness recall and metacognitive abilities of children and adults were gathered from 266 legal professionals and 33 lay judges. Though within-group consensus was low, participants rated children and adults to be of a level with little difference between legal professionals and lay judges. These results deviate from previous research; implications are discussed.


Two experiments examined the effect of the emotional expression of child victims during testimony (Experiment 1; N = 155) and the camera perspective used to record the testimony (Experiment 2; N = 86) on law students’ judgments of the child’s credibility. Credibility judgments did not differ among camera perspectives, but statements communicated in an emotional (versus neutral) manner were perceived as more credible and truthful. Mechanisms of an emotional victim effect (EVE) are discussed.


Transcripts from 91 investigative interviews from suspected child sexual abuse cases were coded for frequency and method of the child requesting clarification, factors associated with the child’s request, interviewers’ responses to clarification requests, and resulting responses from the child. Children rarely asked for clarification. When clarification was requested, it was often an explicit request, and older children made more requests. Interviewers most commonly rephrased questions in response to clarification requests.


By examining the performance of 245 11- to 21-year olds using the Deese-Roediger-McDermott (DRM) paradigm, the authors found that false memory on the DRM task increased with age. However, false memory on the DRM task was not associated with false memory on a task where participants could see what they thought were co-witness responses.

This study questioned whether mortality salience, perpetrator presence in the lineup, and administrator steering in a mock crime paradigm increased witness susceptibility to lineup administrator influence. Non-mortality-salient witnesses were more likely to be guided by steering administrators toward suspect identifications than mortality salient witnesses, however, mortality salience did not have consistent or reliable effects on witness identification decisions. The authors suggested additional research to examine the influence of eyewitness motivation on identification accuracy.


Sixty-seven participants with low, moderate, or high blood alcohol concentrations were approached at a bar, instructed to commit a mock crime, and tested for memory of crime details and susceptibility to suggestive questions. Between three and five days later, a sober follow-up retested memory and susceptibility to suggestive questions. Findings suggest moderate and severe intoxication decreased memory of crime details during both test and retest sessions; severe intoxication increased susceptibility to suggestive cues.


This study addressed attorney preference for forensic versus social scientific expert witnesses, attorney knowledge of expert credibility, and attorney beliefs regarding expert errors. Results indicated that attorneys displayed a self-serving bias pattern by believing expert error to be disproportionately represented in other attorneys’ cases relative to their own. They also preferred forensic science evidence over social science evidence and had significant knowledge of factors affecting expert credibility.


The researchers investigated the use of a national system to correctly flag violent and sexual offenders who are high risk. A sample of 516 flagged offenders (FOs), 58 dangerous offenders, and 129 long-term offenders was examined for various demographic variables, risk assessment tools, and recidivism rates. Results found that FOs had lower scores of risk assessment measures and higher violent recidivism rates. The authors concluded the national system has utility, though may benefit from using risk assessment measures in the flagging process.


To examine the relationship between response inhibition and firing on civilians, participants (N = 88) completed computer-based go/no-go tasks and played a shooting game containing both intended and unintended targets. Simulated civilian casualties were not related to motor impulsivity but to the participant’s cognitive ability to withhold an already initiated response as measured through a computer-based stop-signal reaction time (SSRT) task. Active-response-inhibition training reduced simulated civilian casualties.


24 mental health professionals in Swiss prisons were interviewed regarding practices for informing incarcerated patients about limits to confidentiality. Interview content was then analyzed for qualitative themes. Voluntary therapeutic situations required more complex practices of informing patients about confidentiality and its limits than court-ordered evaluations or therapies. Different approaches for discussing confidentiality with voluntary patients were analyzed and efforts to improve practitioners’ ethical and legal knowledge about confidentiality disclosures were recommended.

The predictive utility of the adverse childhood experiences (ACE) index was investigated among 22,575 juvenile delinquents believed to be at risk for becoming serious, violent, and chronic (SVC) offenders. Results indicated that the ACE index accurately identifies children at risk of SVC offending and that each additional adverse experience a child experiences increases the risk of becoming a serious, violent, and chronic juvenile offender by 35. Practical applications for the tool are further discussed.


This study examined exoffender accounts of successful transitions from prison to community in the months and years following release. Three metanarratives that helped individuals to make sense of reentry included reentry as reverence, as reunification, and as reconstruction. In different ways, each narrative centers on connections to important others through faith, family, or community. The authors discussed the legitimacy of the narratives and the central component of connectivity offered by these narratives.


The risk sensitivity model of worry about crime was replicated in Italy ($N = 522$), Bulgaria ($N = 1008$), and Lithuania ($N = 1021$). The analysis examined the links between worry about criminal victimization, risk perception, and need for cognitive closure. Findings suggest risk perception involves multiple, interacting dimensions (e.g., perceived likelihood, control, and consequence) constituting sensitivity to risk. Also shown to play a role were individual differences in knowledge construction, information judgment, and processing.


The researchers compared general offenders to pretrial defendants who were found incompetent to stand trial (IST). Analyses of data from the 2008 Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) survey revealed that IST individuals tended to be older and more frequently used weapons. Overall, results indicated that pretrial defendants frequently had long histories of psychiatric hospitalizations, were diagnosed with comorbid substance use, and were homeless and unemployed.


The study explored the use of a pretrial preparation program in decreasing anticipatory anxiety in children who were witnesses to a crime. One hundred and ninety-three children aged 4 to 17 participated in the program prior to their court appearance. Results revealed decreases in anticipatory anxiety, which shows promise for using such programs to decrease stress in child witnesses.


This study analyzed data collected from interviews with 22 prisoners between prison and full freedom in two social integration centers and two prisons. Results supported that hypothesis that the availability of a strong social and family network is important in obtaining employment after prison.


The authors studied parricidal subjects and their victims using the sociodemographic, clinical and forensic characteristics of 40 parricial patients. The study also assessed the evolution of 36 patients transferred to psychiatric hospitals. Results indicated most offenders are single, unemployed, young males living with the victim who have criminal history and/or history of schizophrenia diagnoses. Offense characteristics and precipitating factors were also discussed, as well as recommendations for future study.

The study used data from a Canadian national study of people found Not Criminally Responsible on Account of Mental Disorder (NCRMD) who were under conditional discharge (n = 837). Survival analyses revealed that those who were placed in independent housing were more likely to offend against another individual and more likely to be readmitted for psychiatric treatment. The authors stress the impact housing can have on forensic patients.


To investigate blindness to alterations of past transgressions, 80 participants provided both true and fabricated responses to a questionnaire about past transgressions. Interviews where two previously fabricated and two truthful answers were altered by the experimenter were conducted after a one-week delay. Blindness was more pronounced in participants with transgression history and fabricated responses versus no transgression history and truthful responses, respectively.


This new restorative justice experimental paradigm elicited confessions and apologies for a transgression from participants (N = 101). Researchers manipulated coercion (coerced, not coerced) and victim presence (direct, surrogate, ambiguous) to test their effects on offenders' subjective experiences of offering an apology, as well as their effects on the quality of offenders' apologies. Findings indicated that victim presence and coercion significantly impacted some of the subjective perceptions of apologizers, including perceptions of accountability, transgression finality and quality of apologies.


Characterizing fear of crime as a specific event composed of spatial, temporal, and personal variables, the fear of crime application (FOCA) was used to collect data from six Android mobile device users who were pinged up to four times a day. The data from this pilot demonstration indicate spatiotemporal variation in fear of crime.


Using regression models to examine the association between vicarious peer victimization and violence in adolescents, this study evaluated the competing processes of social learning theory, general strain theory, and peer group selection models to link vicarious peer victimization and violence. Findings suggested that peer victimization permeates throughout adolescent social networks and is related to adolescent violence through peer-group selection and social learning mechanisms.


Surveyed 246 juvenile probation officers in the Midwest for prevalence, predictors, and potential outcomes of burnout. Moderate levels of burnout were reported, with 30% scoring in high range for emotional exhaustion and cynicism. No group-level differences were found in burnout scores across gender, race/ethnicity, age, or education, however significant predictors of burnout in regression models included being White vs. minority, serving in an urban vs. rural county, dissatisfaction with department guidelines and job dissatisfaction, viewing job role as treatment-oriented, and turnover intention. Those reporting burnout were more likely to endorse mental health stigma and lack of mental health competency for clients with behavioral health concerns.
Welcome to the second edition of the Career Corner, a question-and-answer column sponsored by the AP-LS Student Committee. The Career Corner is intended to highlight the varied backgrounds that individuals who work at the intersection of law and psychology can come from, and how that background influences their research, teaching, and/or practice. This edition profiles Dr. Jennifer Woolard, Associate Professor at Georgetown University and current AP-LS President.

Dr. Jennifer Woolard, can you briefly describe your career trajectory up until now?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: I finished my Ph.D. in community psychology and psychology and law at the University of Virginia and then joined the University of Florida faculty in their Center for Studies in Criminology and Law. After four years in that interdisciplinary center I moved to the Psychology Department at Georgetown University where I have been ever since.

AP-LS Student Committee: How did you become interested in working at the intersection of law and psychology?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: The confluence of undergraduate classes and internships led me to an interest in psychology and law. While a fourth year student at the University of Virginia I took a class on Oppression and Social Change with Melvin Wilson that included a field placement in our local domestic violence shelter. I took a class on Children, Families, and the Law with Dick Reppucci that, between coursework, police ride alongs, and court observation, solidified my interests in children in the legal system (and led me to study with him in graduate school as well). I also interned in our county Victim Witness Assistance Program that was located in the police department, allowing me to respond with the police to the scenes of crimes against persons and accompany victims through the justice system process. Finally, I was a research assistant for Mavis Hetherington’s large-scale project with families of divorce. All of those experiences combined with a sociology thesis on violence against women helped me realize that graduate school, rather than law school, was the right path for me.

AP-LS Student Committee: How does coming from a community psychology background influence your work? How do you think that perspective has shaped your research?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: My community psych background fundamentally shapes my perspective in several ways. First, it focuses me on ecological contexts and helps me examine the interaction of systems with children and families, not just the developmental characteristics of children alone. So, for example, rather than asking “why can’t children understand their constitutional right to a lawyer” we can investigate how the legal system’s process and procedures make it difficult to access lawyers and prevent children and families from understanding all the nuances of a complex process. Second, it leads me to emphasize the importance of understanding the lived experiences of youth and families - to try
and capture their perspectives and experiences accurately, often through a mixed methods approach to research. Third, it enables me to view system stakeholders as partners rather than research subjects. By asking stakeholders how research could help their concerns, my research projects are simply better - more informed, valid, and responsive. I have had so many assumptions corrected before we got into the weeds of research. That's not to say I haven't made a whole lot of mistakes, but I'm probably more likely to figure out that I'm making them through these conversations. Finally, it has kept values like social justice and empowerment as explicit goals of my work.

AP-LS Student Committee: For you, what part of your job is most satisfying? Most challenging?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: There are so many aspects of being an academic that are satisfying - working with great students, having the luxury of thinking for a living, experiencing the autonomy of setting my own agenda. If I had to identify one of the sweet spots of this job, though, it is the opportunity to bring research to bear on a set of important social issues by working with legal system stakeholders and community members. That "boundary spanning" role is my favorite part - being able to connect academia with policymakers, practitioners, and families. And, as you might guess, that's also the most challenging part. Being effective, even only some of the time, takes a lot of work and is regularly humbling.

AP-LS Student Committee: What do you see as the major problems legal psychology researchers are being met with today?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: By the phrasing of that question if you are asking about problems outside of our own discipline I would say funding, certainly. If I were to step back and put us into the mix as well, I would say one of our major problems is figuring out how to become knowledgeable about the legal system in practice, not just in theory. And here I'm speaking as a researcher who is not clinically trained - clearly our forensic colleagues are immersed in the daily reality of the legal system. I'm thinking more about the challenge of really spending the time and the effort to know the people, systems, and processes that we want to study. In many ways our field is much better than some others in its relevance and utility, and I could reel off a long list of APLS members who are exactly at the nexus of research, policy, and practice. Even so, I worry that sometimes we are too removed from the way things really work and aren't communicating the "so what" to our partners effectively enough. (Perhaps this is all simply projecting my own concerns onto the entire field!)

AP-LS Student Committee: Can you talk a little bit about how you incorporate legal practitioners and/or scholars' perspectives into your own work? What are some of the benefits of inviting legal practitioners/scholars to work on legal psychology research?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: There are both benefits and costs to incorporating legal practitioners and legal scholars into our work. I've outlined some of the benefits already - our work is stronger, we have to communicate more effectively with folks outside our discipline. There are some costs though - if we're truly partnering then the work can take longer and we lose/give up some degree of control. Ultimately I'm convinced our product is the better for it.

AP-LS Student Committee: If anything, what do you wish the fields of law and psychology knew/recognized about each other?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: I think we actually do a pretty good job of working together and realizing that we ask different questions (or ask questions differently) and that the legal and scientific approaches just use different methodologies and have different goals. They can be compatible of course but the differences are a good thing.

AP-LS Student Committee: As some parting wisdom, what do you wish legal psychology students should keep in mind when doing this type of interdisciplinary work?

Dr. Jennifer Woolard: I would give perhaps inherently contradictory advice to remember that you know a lot and you don't know much at all. You know a lot about science, research and all those related skills - you know how to frame a question, to think about data as evidence, to spot limitations, etc. But you (I) will always have so much to learn from our partners who are legal academics, practitioners, and individuals who experience the justice system. A wise community psychologist, Jim Kelly, offered a list of qualities of a community psychologist which are relevant here but the one that most easily comes to mind as advice to graduate students is maintaining a "metabolic balance of patience and zeal." You need both for graduate school and for whatever career opportunities lie ahead.
Forensic psychologists are called upon to testify at hearings and trials to provide insight for the trier of fact on psychological constructs associated with the ultimate legal issue. Federal rules of evidence allow for the admission of testimony that falls within the following parameters (i.e., Article 7: Opinions and Expert Testimony; Federal Rules of Evidence, 2013): (a) the expert’s scientific, technical, or other specialized knowledge will help the trier of fact to understand the evidence or to determine a fact in issue, (b) the testimony is based on sufficient facts or data, (c) the testimony is the product of reliable principles and methods, and (d) the expert has reliably applied the principles and methods to the facts of the case.

The focus of the present newsletter is on (b), providing testimony based on sufficient facts or data. As an early career psychologist, one might wonder whether or not an effect size meets the benchmark of sufficient fact or data to substantiate testimony? The findings of the 1996 APA Task Force on Statistical Inference would suggest otherwise (Wilkinson & APA Board of Scientific Affairs, 1999). In brief, statistical significance is a quantification of probability, which provides almost no insight into practical significance (i.e., actual size of an association or difference in scores). For example, it is possible to simultaneously observe the difference between boys and girls consumption of Doritos to be statistically significant (i.e., p < .05) alongside an actual difference in consumption that would have no bearing on health.

The interpretation of effect sizes is a recommended alternative to statistical significance testing because effect sizes are quantifications of size or magnitude; effect sizes indicate practical significance. For example, Cohen’s $d$ is often used to show the difference between two mean scores in standard deviation terms. Using the example above, if the difference in boys and girls consumption of Doritos is equal to a Cohen’s $d$ of .02, their mean difference in consumption is equal to 2% of a standard deviation. Cohen’s $d$ is quite easy to calculate: the difference in mean scores divided by the common standard deviation (Newton & Rudestam, 1999). However, there are also limitations and potential shortcomings associated with inferences based on effect sizes.

Namely, easy to use and dependable benchmarks for the interpretation of effect sizes are not valid. With regard to Cohen’s $d$, Cohen begrudgingly provided fixed benchmarks to aid interpretation: (a) $d \geq .80 =$ large, (b) $d \geq .50 =$ medium (b) $d \geq .20 =$ small (Cohen, 1988). Yet, Cohen himself suggested not to employ these guidelines if at all possible, an opinion widely held among statisticians: “if people interpreted effect sizes [using fixed benchmarks] with the same rigidity that $\alpha = .05$ has been used in statistical testing, we would merely be being stupid in another metric” (Thompson, 2001, pp.82-83).

According to Thompson (2002, 2007), the gold standard for the interpretation of effect sizes is to put the effect size under scrutiny into the context of effect sizes reported in the extant literature on the subject at hand. Perhaps Thompson’s advice is aspirational, but not a requirement for determining sufficient fact or data in a forensic setting. That is, it seems a daunting task for an early career psychologist to successfully interpret an effect size he or she would like to include in testimony via a complex synthesis of prior research. For example, should the examination of effect sizes be limited to studies on a similar or the same construct, a similar or the exact same assessment tool, a similar or the exact same developmental period, etc.? Of course, this task is much less demanding when meta-analytic studies are available for review.

When the results of meta-analysis are not available, the use of power analysis is a recommended and slightly less aspirational alternative for determining whether or not an effect size meets the benchmark of sufficient fact or data. The purpose of power analysis is to determine the cutoff for a minimally interpretable effect size in a study given the data provided by the authors (Fritz, Morris, & Richler, 2011). In order to set the stage for the use of power analysis in forensic settings, its application is demonstrated through a real world example in which details have been slightly altered for the purpose of dissemination.

In April of 2015, the author was given a referral regarding the mental health status of a young man residing in a state hospital that houses forensic mental health patients. The request was for the young man to be provided with a forensic mental health evaluation, which was to include an analysis of violence risk. At the hearing, his defense attorney was going to be seeking eligibility for conditional release. It was also made known that testing at a psychiatric security review board hearing was a required aspect of the case, and in fact the referral came directly from the board.

The section of the evaluation focused on violence risk was developed using the Historical, Clinical, Risk Management-20, Version 3 (HCR-20; Douglas, Hart, Webster, & Belfrage, 2013). Record review showed that the HCR-20 was also used in a prior, 2013 evaluation. HCR-20 results in the previous evaluation showed a moderate to high level of risk, and results in the present evaluation showed a low level of risk. Therefore, a literature review was developed with the aim of identifying sufficient data to substantiate the hypothesis that HCR-20 results are sensitive to change in a hospital setting. Fortuitously, De Vries Robbé, de Vogel, Douglas, and Nijman (2015) recently reported on the sensitivity of HCR-20 scores to change in a forensic mental health hospital. Specifically, 108 adults receiving a hospital level of care received higher HCR-20 scores at admission than 12 months post-admission, t(107) = -11.10, $d = -0.85$, 95% Confidence Interval [0.11, 1.59], $p < .001$ (De Vries Robbé et al., 2015). Given the coefficients provided, one might argue that the results were both statistically and practically significant. However, a more conservative inference is required in a forensic setting. Therefore, power analysis was conducted to determine the cutoff for a minimally interpretable effect size given the sample size and statistical significance as reported by De Vries Robbé et al. Below, find the four steps to running power analysis:
Determining Sufficient Fact or Data in Legal Testimony

Step One
Download R statistics, a free statistical program available for Mac and Windows (R Core Team, 2014): http://www.r-project.org/.

Step Two
Install the pwr package (Champely, 2012) used to develop power analysis by typing the following code into the R console: install.packages("pwr")

Step Three
Step three, open the pwr package: require("pwr")

The next time you open R, just type the following to activate the pwr package: library(pwr).

Step Four
Provide the code to calculate power. Using the above example, type the following:

```r
> pwr.t.test(n=108, d=NULL, sig.level=.00625, power=.80,type=c("paired"), alternative=c("less"))
```

pwr.t.test is the code used to calculate power analysis for t-tests. N was set to 108 because there were 108 participants in the study. d is NULL because d is the coefficient R is being queried to calculate. Significance was set to .00625 because there were a total of 8 comparisons in scores calculated in the study. Said another way, the t-test currently under scrutiny was just one of eight developed by De Vries Robbé et al. (2015). In order to control for error using Bonferroni’s adjustment,.05 was divided by the number of opportunities for error there were in the study (i.e., .05/8=.00625). Power was set to .80 as recommended by Ellis (2010) to limit the chance of Type II error to 20%. A Type II error is also known as a “false negative,” meaning the researcher believes there was no effect yet data show otherwise. Further, type=c("paired") indicates that the t-test includes the comparison of the same, or paired, participants on a variable before and after an intervention. Last, alternative=c("less") indicates that the hypothesis is that HCR-20 scores will be smaller at follow-up (i.e., one-sided t-test).

Results/Output

```r
Paired t test power calculation
n = 108
d = -0.3260982
sig.level = 0.00625
power = 0.8
alternative = less
```

**NOTE**: n is number of “pairs”

Results show that -0.3260982 is the cutoff for a minimally interpretable effect size. Moving back to the research article used to substantiate testimony at the pending hearing, De Vries Robbé et al. (2015) reported a change in HCR-20 scores that was equivalent to a Cohen’s d of .85. Therefore, there is sufficient data to substantiate the hypothesis that HCR-20 scores are sensitive to change in adults receiving a hospital level of care. A more conservative inference would include that the lower end of the 95% confidence interval reported by De Vries Robbé et al. was .11, which is far below 0.33. Notwithstanding this limitation, if the hearing includes a question from one of the attorneys regarding the observed change in Mr. X’s HCR-20 scores, the following response would be appropriate:

Mr. X has been receiving a hospital level of care since 2012, and his hospital level of care is likely associated with the reduction of risk for future violence as reported using the HCR-20. In fact, research on adults receiving a hospital level of care has shown substantial (i.e., meaningful, interpretable, or practically significant) reductions in HCR-20 scores 12 months following admission.

Power analysis using the pwr package can also be used to scrutinize results from ANOVA, Chi-square test, general linear model, proportion, and correlation. All you need is a few data points that should be reported in all peer-reviewed, empirical papers.

### References


Student Committee

Although it is always sad to see former Committee members move on, the Student Committee is very excited to welcome its newest student leaders, and to continue its tradition of providing our student members with programming throughout the year. Returning to the committee is our Chair – Meghann Galloway, Student Representative Coordinator – Elizabeth Gale-Benz, and Law – Liaison – Jaymes Fairfax-Columbo. Some of our members are returning to us in new positions, including Emily Haney-Caron as Chair Elect and Caitlin Cavanagh as our Experimental Liaison. Our newest members are our Secretary – Tara Ryan and Clinical Liaison – Shelby Arnold.

Be on the lookout for our blog to launch in September via our website (apls-students.org), and for updates on our activities both on the website as well as our social media accounts (@APLSsc on Twitter and American Psychology-Law Society Student Committee on Facebook). For our first official activity of the year, we recruited our past Experimental Liaison, Erika Fountain, to interview her mentor and our newest President Dr. Jennifer Woolard as the next installment of our Career Corner. We hope this series is enjoyable and informative, and encourage everyone to visit our website or to contact us (aplsstudents@gmail.com) at any time.

Committee on Early Career Psychologists (ECP)

The American Psychology-Law Society Committee on Early Career Psychologists (ECP) funds annually several grants of up to $5,000. The deadline is October 15, 2015. The purpose of the award is to support AP-LS members who are within 7 years of receiving their last degree to conduct research related to psychology and law. Details about the purpose of the award, eligibility, and application instructions are available on the AP-LS website and at the link below. Please contact the ECP Committee Chair, Kathleen Kemp, at kkemp@lifespan.org with any questions.

For more information regarding the ECP grants in aid, please go here: Grants in Aid
Teaching, Training, and Careers (TTC) Committee

New TTC Committee Award for Early Career Professionals

The Teaching, Training, and Careers (TTC) Committee is excited to announce that we will now be offering an Early Career Teaching/Mentoring Award. With this new award, the TTC committee aims to recognize early career professionals (7 years and below) for their excellence and contributions to teaching and mentoring. The process for this award will be identical to the existing teaching/mentoring award, with eligibility limited to early career professionals. We will continue to offer our annual Outstanding Teaching and Mentoring Award (Congratulations again to our 2015 recipient Jodi Quas!). For up to date information on both of our awards please keep an eye on the AP-LS Awards page of the AP-LS website. The annual nomination deadline is December 1.

Guide to Graduate Programs Updated

The Guide to Graduate Programs in Forensic and Legal Psychology 3rd Edition (2014/2015) is complete and has been posted on the AP-LS website. A number of new programs (domestic and international) have been added to the guide. Additionally, the data concerning existing programs has been updated. The committee would like to thank Jared Ruchensky & Matthew Huss for their commitment, diligence and hard work on this important resource. Our committee will continue to work on keeping the guide up-to-date with assistance from the AP-LS Student Committee. The next update to the manual is planned for 2016/2017.

Call for Syllabi

The TTC Committee is continuing its efforts to collect syllabi for courses in Psychology and Law or closely related topics. There are already a number of syllabi that have been collected over the years on the AP-LS website. However, we would like to routinely post new syllabi. We would appreciate your assistance in providing us with a copy of your syllabi. If you have not already provided one, please do so in the following way: Send a copy of your syllabi to Wendy Heath (heath@rider.edu). Soft copies may be submitted as e-mail attachments (Word Perfect, Word, or ASCII files are preferred).

Call for "Teaching Techniques" Column Submission

We are interested in hearing from those in the field about novel and/or effective teaching techniques you are using with your students and trainees in our Teaching Techniques column for the next AP-LS Newsletter. If you are interested in contributing please contact Jessica Salerno (jessica.salerno@gmail.com).

Welcome to the New TTC Committee Members

We would like to welcome the new members of the TTC Committee who began positions in August 2014: Derek Hess and Apryl Alexander. Alana Cook also transitioned to the position of Chair of the TTC in August 2014.

Contact Us

Please contact us if you have input for the TTC Committee on how best we can serve our membership (Contact TTC Chair Alana Cook [alanac@sfu.ca]).
Corrections Committee Update

At the APA Convention in Toronto, Ontario, the Corrections Committee proudly presented a symposium on gender issues in corrections. The panelists offered clinical perspectives on three gender-specific topics directly affecting mental health treatment in the correctional system. The presentation reviewed best practices and unique challenges encountered when working with transgender inmates, with female inmates, and within male facilities by female clinicians. Mental health professionals are tasked daily with providing sound interventions while navigating a system that can be resistant to new ideas and slow to change.

Dr. Robyn Hodges began the symposium by presenting on the topic of treatment of transgender inmates within the correctional system. Gender Dysphoria and transgender rights have become increasingly part of the public's awareness. However, there are many challenges in treating such clients in a correctional setting. Dr. Robyn Hodges reviewed a recommended algorithm as a framework for addressing assessment and treatment planning for inmates who identify as transgender. The first component to this algorithm is making relevant notifications such as therapeutic and medical concerns to administrative, medical, and other mental health staff within the system. These notifications may include history of treatment for Gender Dysphoria, hormone replacement therapy, and surgical interventions. Part of this process includes obtaining releases of information for prior treatment providers. Since many inmates prove to be poor historians, it is important to attempt to gain access to community medical and mental health records. It is especially important, if possible, to have accurate information regarding hormone replacement therapy. It is also relevant to determine if the hormone replacement was medically monitored. In addition, a clinical interview by an evaluator who is familiar with the unique needs of transgender inmates is necessary. After such an assessment, Dr. Hodges recommended forming a multidisciplinary treatment team to review each individual case.

The team must discuss whether the client meets criteria for Gender Dysphoria, as well as what treatment is considered medically necessary (e.g., hormone replacement therapy) for the case and what interventions will be considered safe within the correctional environment. If the inmate does not meet criteria for Gender Dysphoria, the discussion does not stop there. Further review of reasonable non-medical accommodations (e.g., access to comfort items through commissary such as different underwear or makeup, housing unit and cellmates) should be considered. Finally, the treatment plan needs to be an evolving process that meets the offender treatment needs and still accommodates safety and security concerns.

Dr. Lauren Brown presented on the barriers to trauma treatment for female inmates, which include environmental, institutional, and interpersonal factors. Female offenders represent 18 percent of the incarcerated population and have a unique pathway to crime that differs from their male counterparts. Female inmates, due to co-occurring disorders and significant trauma histories, have difficulty adjusting to prison and are at high risk for recidivism. Female inmates report that their experience of loud, locked, housing facilities lack privacy. The women often end up being exposed to violent behavior within the institution. They are often spoken to in a disrespectful manner within a culture that utilizes dehumanizing language. Female inmates, despite mental illness and trauma histories, have to succumb to institutional policies that rely upon clothing removal, physical contact, and restraints as security measures. These women demonstrate difficulty with engagement in therapeutic services due to the stigma surrounding mental health treatment, their own feelings of powerlessness, as well as the reenactment of childhood abuse within the therapeutic relationship. In order to begin to break through these barriers, Dr. Brown made recommendations on the implementation of trauma informed correctional environments by creating physically and emotionally safe institutions, educating and training staff, and providing gender-specific, trauma focused mental health programs. Some of the specific recommendations in these areas include: clear and consistent rules, training on common trauma triggers, and use of strength based assessments.

Dr. Sarah Miller and Dr. Dianna Kucera presented on experiences and perceptions of female staff working in male correctional institutions. Gender issues are not limited to inmates. Women who choose to provide services within a male correctional institution encounter exceptional challenges that can undermine integrity, increase safety risks, and challenge therapeutic relationships. Being female has little effect on therapeutic interventions, but male inmates may still respond differently to female psychologists, and their reactions are often complicated by their own personal experiences with women. Female psychologists are subject to projection of male fantasies and stereotypes, which range from sexual to wholesome. Unfortunately, negative stereotypes are often exacerbated by news headlines that question the appropriateness of women as staff within male institutions. A prime example in current news is that of Baltimore City inmate Tavon Mitchell, a known gang leader, who impregnated 4 prison guards and convinced others to bring in contraband. The headline read: “Women Should not be Correctional Officers in a Male Facility.”

The reality is that women are becoming more and more prevalent in correctional settings and are faced with unique challenges. Some guidelines suggested to face these challenges successfully include discussing concerns with a trusted peer group and engaging in a variety of healthy self-care activities outside of work; understanding and working within the correctional environment, including developing and maintaining appropriate professional boundaries; and treating all inmates equally and within best practice guidelines.

Gender issues in corrections, whether related to inmates or staff, have become an important topic. The overarching theme across these presentations was how to provide effective therapeutic interventions while working within the parameters of a system that is less than ingratiating to the sensitive topic of gender. This symposium increased awareness of gender issues in corrections and will hopefully lead others to future research and discussion in this area.

Committee Members
-Dianna Kucera, PsyD, & Sarah Miller, PhD, ABPP
# AP-LS Executive Committee and Committee Chairs

## Voting Members

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Calls for Nominations & Papers
Announcements
Advertisements

Fall 2015
American Psychology-Law Society

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Call for Nominations:
Charles L. Brewer Distinguished Teaching of Psychology Award
APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Application of Psychology
APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Practice of Psychology
APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Science of Psychology
APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in Psychology in the Public Interest

About the American Psychological Foundation (APF)
Since 1953, APF has supported a broad range of scholarships and grants for students and early career psychologists as well as research and program grants that use psychology to improve people’s lives. APF encourages applications from individuals who represent diversity in race, ethnicity, gender, age, disability, and sexual orientation.

Submission Deadlines for all APF awards:
December 1, 2015

Questions about these programs should be directed to Samantha Edington, Program Officer at sedington@apa.org

Please be advised that APF does not provide feedback to grant applicants or award nominees on their proposals or nominations.

Charles L. Brewer Distinguished Teaching of Psychology Award

About the Charles L. Brewer Distinguished Teaching of Psychology Award
The Charles L. Brewer Distinguished Teaching of Psychology Award recognizes significant career contributions of a psychologist who has a proven track record as an exceptional teacher of psychology.

Amount
- $2,000 award
- $1,000 travel stipend and round-trip airfare to APA convention
- Plaque presented at the APA convention
- Awardees are invited to give a special address at the APA convention

Eligibility Requirements & Evaluation Criteria
- Nominees should demonstrate and will be rated on the following dimensions:
  - Have demonstrated achievement related to the teaching of psychology
  - Exemplary performance as a classroom teacher
  - Development of innovative curricula and courses
  - Development of effective teaching methods and/or materials
  - Teaching of advanced research methods and practice in psychology
  - Administrative facilitation of teaching
  - Research on teaching
  - Training of teachers of psychology
  - Evidence of influence as a teacher of students who become psychologists

Nomination Requirements
- Nomination cover letter outlining the nominee’s contributions to the teaching of psychology
- Current CV and bibliography
- Up to ten supporting letters from colleagues, administrators, and former students
- An appendix of no more than two to three supporting documents
- A one to three page statement of teaching philosophy from the nominee
- All nomination materials must be gathered by the nominator and submitted online

Submission Website: http://www.apa.org/apf/funding/brewer.aspx
APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Application of Psychology

About the Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Application of Psychology:
The Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Application of Psychology recognizes a distinguished career and enduring contribution to advancing the application of psychology through methods, research, and/or application of psychological techniques to important practical problems.

Eligibility Requirements
Eligibility is typically limited to psychologists 65 years or older residing in North America. Gold medalists are selected by peers on the basis of evidence of sustained superior performance which is recognizable at a national (rather than local or regional) level. The Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Application of Psychology is given to a psychologist whose research has led to important discoveries or developments in the field of applied psychology.

To be eligible, this research should have led to innovative applications in psychology, including but not limited to assessment, consultation, instruction or intervention. Research involving the original development of procedures, methodologies or technical skills that significantly improve the application of psychological knowledge and provide direct solutions to practical problems will be considered. Original integration of existing theories or knowledge is also eligible for consideration.

Additional criteria may include:

Distinguished Service: Evidence of distinguished, sustained service in the application of psychology is required.

Achievement of Excellence: Evidence of recognition by other professional/scientific groups of a kind not routinely accorded to all psychologists. All nominees should have excellent overall personal and professional reputations.

Extraordinary Recognition: Evidence of having received national or international recognition from one’s colleagues for contributions to the application of psychology.

Significant Contributions: The publication of articles, books, monographs and other writings which have made a demonstrable impact on the application and thinking of colleagues on more than a local basis, in their field of endeavor.

Contributions may be judged distinguished by virtue of peer recognition, advancement of the public’s recognition of psychology as a profession, relevant professional association honors, or other meritorious accomplishments denoting excellence as an applied psychology researcher including advancement of the profession.

Nominees should not have received disciplinary action from a state board of examiners in psychology and must have no history of ethical violations at the state or national level.

Nomination Requirements
Nomination letters should indicate the specific Gold Medal Award for which the individual is being nominated and should include the following:

- Nomination statement that addresses the award criteria;
- Nominee’s current vita and bibliography;
- Letters in support of the nomination are welcome, but please refrain from sending supplementary materials such as videos, books, brochures, or magazines;
- All nomination materials should be coordinated and collected by a chief nominator and submitted to APF online.

APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Practice of Psychology

About the Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Practice of Psychology
The Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Practice of Psychology recognizes a distinguished career and enduring contribution to advancing the professional practice of psychology. This award is meant to honor colleagues whose career has focused on either the practice of psychology or advancing the practice of psychology.

Eligibility Requirements
Eligibility is typically limited to psychologists 65 years or older residing in North America, who have a minimum of two years in independent practice and licensure or certification in the state in which the nominees practice. Gold medalists are selected by peers on the basis of evidence of sustained superior performance which is recognizable at a national (rather than local or regional) level.

Additional criteria may include:

*Distinguished Service*: Evidence of distinguished, sustained service in the practice of psychology is required.

*Achievement of Excellence*: Evidence of recognition by other professional/scientific groups of a kind not routinely accorded to all practicing psychologists. All nominees should have excellent overall personal and professional reputations.

*Extraordinary Recognition*: Evidence of having received national or international recognition from one’s colleagues for contributions to psychological practice.

*Significant Contributions*: The publication of articles, books, monographs and other practice and/or scientific writings which have made a demonstrable impact on the practice and thinking of colleagues on more than a local basis, in their field of endeavor.

Contributions may be judged distinguished by virtue of peer recognition, advancement of the public’s recognition of psychology as a profession, relevant professional association honors, or other meritorious accomplishments denoting excellence as a practitioner or research scientist including advancement of the profession.

*Nominees should not have received disciplinary action from a state board of examiners in psychology and must have no history of ethical violations at the state or national level.*

Nomination Requirements
Nomination letters should indicate the specific Gold Medal Award for which the individual is being nominated and should include the following:

- Nomination statement that addresses the award criteria;
- Nominee's current vita and bibliography;
- Letters in support of the nomination are welcome, but please refrain from sending supplementary materials such as videos, books, brochures, or magazines;
- All nomination materials should be coordinated and collected by a chief nominator and *submitted to APF online*.

APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Science of Psychology

About the Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Science of Psychology:
The Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Science of Psychology recognizes a distinguished career and enduring contribution to advancing psychological science.

Eligibility Requirements
Eligibility is typically limited to psychologists 65 years or older residing in North America. Gold medalists are selected by peers on the basis of evidence of sustained superior performance which is recognizable at a national (rather than local or regional) level.

Additional criteria may include:

*Distinguished Service*: Evidence of a distinguished record in the science of psychology is required, as evidenced by editing journals; reviewing grant proposals; and mentoring students and colleagues.

*Achievement of Excellence*: Evidence of recognition by other professional/scientific groups of a kind not routinely accorded to all psychologists. All nominees should have excellent overall personal and professional reputations.

*Extraordinary Recognition*: Evidence of having received national or international recognition from one’s colleagues for contributions to psychological science.

*Significant Contributions*: The publication of articles, books, monographs and other scientific writings which have made a demonstrable impact on the science and thinking of colleagues on more than a local basis, in their field of endeavor.

Contributions may be judged distinguished by virtue of peer recognition, advancement of the public’s recognition of psychology as a profession, relevant professional association honors, or other meritorious accomplishments denoting excellence as a scientific researcher including advancement of the profession.

Nominees should not have received disciplinary action from a state board of examiners in psychology and must have no history of ethical violations at the state or national level.

Nomination Requirements
Nomination letters should indicate the specific Gold Medal Award for which the individual is being nominated and should include the following:

- Nomination statement that addresses the award criteria;
- Nominee's current vita and bibliography;
- Letters in support of the nomination are welcome, but please refrain from sending supplementary materials such as videos, books, brochures, or magazines;
- All nomination materials should be coordinated and collected by a chief nominator and submitted to APF online.

APF Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in Psychology in the Public Interest

About the Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in Psychology in the Public Interest:
The Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement by a Psychologist in the Public Interest recognizes a distinguished career and enduring contribution to the application of psychology in the public interest.

Eligibility Requirements
Eligibility is typically limited to psychologists 65 years or older residing in North America. Gold medalists are selected by peers on the basis of evidence of sustained superior performance which is recognizable at a national (rather than local or regional) level.

Additional criteria may include:
- **Distinguished Service**: Evidence of distinguished, sustained service in psychology in the public interest is required.
- **Achievement of Excellence**: Evidence of recognition by other professional/public interest groups of a kind not routinely accorded to all psychologists.
- All nominees should have excellent overall personal and professional reputations.

- **Extraordinary Recognition**: Evidence of having received national or international recognition from one's colleagues for contributions to psychology in the public interest.

- **Significant Contributions**: The publication of articles, books, monographs and other writings which have made a demonstrable impact on the application and thinking of colleagues on more than a local basis, in their field of endeavor. Contributions may be judged by virtue of peer recognition, advancement of the public's recognition of psychology as a profession, relevant professional association honors, or other meritorious accomplishments denoting excellence as a psychology researcher in the public interest.

Nominees should not have received disciplinary action from a state board of examiners in psychology and must have no history of ethical violations at the state or national level.

Nomination Requirements
Nomination letters should indicate the specific Gold Medal Award for which the individual is being nominated and should include the following:

- Nomination statement that addresses the award criteria;
- Nominee's current vita and bibliography;
- Letters in support of the nomination are welcome, but please refrain from sending supplementary materials such as videos, books, brochures, or magazines;
- All nomination materials should be coordinated and collected by a chief nominator and submitted to APF online.

Call for Papers – Journal of Personality Assessment

Personality constructs may influence the legal system in a variety of ways. At an applied level, personality assessment data may play a role in the adjudication of criminal or civil cases (e.g., child custody, parole decision-making) and in personnel decision-making for legal professionals (e.g., law enforcement personnel, prison guards). At a more theoretical level, personality constructs may be relevant to understanding the attitudes and decision-making of various parties in the legal system as well (e.g., jurors, police officers). The Journal of Personality Assessment is soliciting submissions for a special section that focuses on personality assessment and its relevance to the law, broadly construed. Although data-based submissions are encouraged (e.g., use of personality assessment data to predict legally-important outcomes, such as violent recidivism), theoretical contributions and literature reviews are also appropriate—particularly those that integrate important psychological or psychometric topics and legal issues or concepts. Though not exhaustive, the following represent general topic areas that would be of interest for this special section:

- Predictive validity of personality assessment data in criminal (e.g., insanity, parole), civil (e.g., child custody, civil commitment), and juvenile justice proceedings
- Reviews of the relevance of personality assessment data to specific legal constructs (e.g., “behavioral abnormality” in civil commitment statutes; “best interests of the child” in custody proceedings; “future dangerousness” in capital murder proceedings
- Role of personality assessment in the evaluation of public safety professionals and other legal professionals
- Overviews of the uses and applications of specific personality instruments (e.g., MMPI-2-RF) to address various psycholegal topics within the legal system
- Legal admissibility of evidence concerning personality constructs and/or specific personality assessment instruments in criminal, civil, and juvenile justice proceedings
- Generalizability of research findings from non-forensic settings (on topics such as impression management, reliability, predictive validity) to forensic contexts
- Juror personality traits and their relation to case dispositions

Empirical papers that focus on applied outcome measures (e.g., case dispositions, recidivism, release decision-making) are preferred over manuscripts demonstrating relationships with outcomes of less direct relevance to the legal field (e.g., associations between personality assessment data and self-report measures). Both data-based and non-data-based submissions should include a discussion of the practical implications of their findings/conclusions for legal professionals and/or mental health professionals involved in the legal system.

The deadline to submit a manuscript for this special section is April 1, 2016. Questions concerning the potential appropriateness of any particular submission can be addressed to either of the guest editors of the special section: John Edens (johnedens@tamu.edu) or David DeMatteo (dsd25@drexel.edu). Manuscripts should follow APA format and be submitted to JPA via the ScholarOne Manuscripts web portal (https://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/persassess). Authors should specify in their cover letters that they would like their submissions considered for the special section on Personality Assessment and the Law.
The 2016 AP-LS Annual Meeting will be held from March 10-12 at The Westin Peachtree Plaza in Atlanta, GA.

We invite proposals for symposia, papers, and posters addressing topics in all areas of psychology and law; proposals that are empirically based, or that involve new and emerging topics within the field are encouraged. Empirical research submissions that do not include data are discouraged. Proposals will be evaluated through a blind review process focused on intellectual merit, innovation, and integration of multiple aspects of the field.

**The deadline for submissions is Monday, October 19th, 2015, 11:59pm EST**

**SYMPOSIA (session up to 80 min):** A coordinated group of presentations that focus on one topic; a minimum of three presentations and an independent discussant should be included. The participation of each presenter should be secured prior to submission. Submissions should consist of a 100-word abstract and a 1000-word summary for each paper as well as a 200-word abstract for the symposium session.

**PAPERS (session up to 60 min):** Presentation of a paper describing an individual research topic or piece of legal scholarship; 3-5 paper presentations will be grouped into sessions after acceptances/rejections are completed. Submissions should consist of a 100-word abstract and a summary of not more than 1000 words.

**POSTERS:** Posters will be presented at one of two poster sessions typically held Friday and Saturday evenings. Poster presentations are made in written format on display boards (size TBA). Submissions should consist of a 100-word abstract and a summary of not more than 1000 words.

There will be a limit of **TWO** first-author paper submissions per person; there is no limit on the number of poster submissions or appearances as a discussant or session chair.


If you have any questions or comments regarding the call for papers, or about the conference, please contact the conference co-chairs:

Curt Carlson (apls2016carlson@gmail.com) and Vanessa Edkins (apls2016edkins@gmail.com)

Looking forward to seeing everyone in March!
Program Annoucement

M.Sc. and Ph.D. Programs in Forensic Psychology
University of Ontario Institute of Technology
Inviting Applications for Fall 2016

The University of Ontario Institute of Technology’s (UOIT’s) Faculty of Social Science and Humanities and Office of Graduate Studies have launched new Master of Science (M.Sc.) and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) programs in Forensic Psychology.

Program Focus. Graduate students in these programs will have opportunities to engage in cutting-edge research and coursework on the application of psychology to the justice system. Specifically, graduate students will be able to conduct research under faculty supervision on diverse topics, such as the antisocial personality and psychopathy, domestic violence, eyewitness identification, geographic profiling, investigative interviewing, juvenile offenders, lie detection, sex offenders, and wrongful conviction.

Eligibility. Students with bachelor’s degrees, or those who expect to complete their degrees before September 2016, are eligible to apply for admission into the M.Sc. program. Exceptional applicants may be admitted directly into the five-year Ph.D. program without first having to complete a master’s degree. Students with master’s degrees, or who expect to complete their degrees before September 2016, are eligible to apply for admission into a four-year Ph.D. program. Funding packages are available for all students. For more information on application requirements, visit the links below.

University and Faculty. UOIT emphasizes applied, interdisciplinary, collaborative research. Forensic Psychology graduate students have opportunities to learn from scholars from a variety of disciplines, such as criminology, legal studies, forensic science, and neuroscience. The program offers a strong orientation in the social and biological sciences and is a good fit for students interested in academic and applied (non-clinical) psychological careers. Students will learn alongside, and make connections with, graduate students in the Faculty’s highly successful Master of Arts program in Criminology.

Community. The Forensic Psychology programs are situated at UOIT’s downtown Oshawa location. Oshawa is in the Greater Toronto Area, about 40 miles (60 kilometres) from downtown Toronto. Classrooms and laboratory facilities are new and spacious. Police departments, mental health facilities, hospitals, addiction centres, and the Durham Region courthouse are all in close proximity to campus. Students will be well-positioned to conduct research with these institutions and organizations, and gain practical skills that will facilitate employment upon graduation.

Application. The application deadline for Fall 2016 enrolment December 15, 2015. For more information, including application instructions, visit: http://www.socialscienceandhumanities.uoit.ca/graduate/forensic-psychology/index.php
The American Psychology-Law Society Book Award is given to a scholarly book devoted to psychology and law issues. The award is intended to recognize outstanding scholarship in psychology and law.

**Changed from a biennial to an annual award:** Beginning in 2014, the Book Award is given separately for authored and edited books on an annual, rotating basis.

**Eligibility:**
This year, **EDITED BOOKS** published in 2013 and 2014 will be considered for the award presented at the upcoming AP-LS conference in March 2016. Authored scholarly books (but not textbooks) published in 2014 and 2015 will be considered for the award presented at the AP-LS conference in 2017.

**Deadline:**
The deadline for nominations of authored books is November 1, 2015

Nomination letters should include: Title and publisher of the book, month and year of publication, and the names and addresses of all authors. Self nominations are strongly encouraged.

Please send nomination letters electronically to:
Mark Fondacaro, J.D., Ph.D., Chair, Book Award Committee, mfondacaro@gmail.com

Please send one and preferably two copies of the nominated book to:
Mark Fondacaro, J.D., Ph.D., Chair, Book Award Committee
John Jay College, City University of New York
Department of Psychology
524 W 59th Street
10th Floor, Room 10.63.08
New York, NY 10019

The winner of the award will be presented with a plaque, and invited to give an award address, at the 2016 meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society.
Despite notable contributions in eyewitness identification and jury selection, most legal research done by psychologists has had a minimal impact upon law and public policy in the United States. In fact, much psycholegal research is marred by systemic flaws. In this carefully-reasoned and compelling text, Bruce D. Sales and Daniel A. Krauss explain how psychologists have failed to understand the law and the context in which it operates. Even subtle misunderstandings about the nature of courtroom testimony or the application of different legal statutes across different jurisdictions, they argue, can produce research that fails to examine real world phenomena. To combat this, the authors present a roadmap for how criminal justice and forensic researchers can use research to describe, explain, predict, and provide solutions for legal situations that can have a real impact on judges, juries, and the legal profession at large. 2015. 200 pages. Hardcover.

CONTENTS:
The Saleem Shah Award is an annual award co-sponsored by the American Academy of Forensic Psychology and the American Psychology-Law Society recognizing early career excellence and contributions to the field of psychology and law. The focus of a nominee's contributions may be in any area of forensic psychology practice, research, or public policy. The recipient must have received the doctoral degree (or law degree, whichever comes later, if both have been earned) within the last 6 years (Year 2009 or later, inclusive of 2009). The award includes $2,000, as well as the opportunity to give the Saleem Shah Address. Nominations must include 1) a letter detailing the nominee’s contributions to psychology and law and 2) a copy of the nominee’s vita. Self-nominations will not be considered.

Nominations are due by midnight EST on November 30, 2015.

Nominations should be sent electronically, in PDF or Word format, to Robert Cochrane, Psy.D., President-Elect of AAFP: rcochrane@bop.gov
Job Announcements

Associate or Full Professor/Director, Judicial Studies Program and Justice Management Program

The School of Social Research and Justice Studies at the University of Nevada, Reno, seeks a faculty member for a tenure-track position at the Associate or Full Professor level in one of the social or behavioral sciences in the College of Liberal Arts. The primary administrative responsibility will be to direct the three graduate degree programs included in the Program: the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in Judicial Studies for trial judges and the on-line master's degree in Justice Management for others with careers in the justice system. These degree programs are offered in conjunction with the National Judicial College and the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges, both of which are headquartered on the university campus. The successful candidate will have a research program that focuses on the justice system, preferably including the judiciary. Candidates with a history of teaching and training judges and others with experience in the justice system are preferred. Salary is competitive and commensurate with experience. Experience as described above will be an important consideration in selection. The teaching load will be one course per semester in the home department, with courses mutually determined by department priorities and individual expertise. The successful candidate will also be expected to offer a seminar in the candidate's specialty in the Judicial Studies program. The successful candidate will be expected to develop and maintain an active research program, supervise and mentor graduate students in both the M.A. and Ph.D. Programs in Judicial Studies, the Justice Management program, as well as their home department, and seek external funding for their research program.

The full description can be found here: https://www.unrsearch.com/postings/18618

Tenure-Track Assistant Professor - Psychology

Applications are invited for a tenure-track appointment at the Assistant Professor level starting July 1st, 2016. Candidates are expected to have a Ph. D. in Psychology or be near completion of the degree. We seek an individual who can contribute to teaching and research in areas such as Forensic Psychology, Clinical, Counselling, Cognitive, Personality or Human Sexuality. Candidates should present evidence, commensurate with experience, of their teaching ability and the courses they are interested in teaching, of their willingness to supervise both undergraduate and graduate students, and of their scholarly productivity. As well as meeting their teaching responsibilities, the successful candidate will be expected to conduct and supervise research, collaborate with other department colleagues, and contribute to the Department's programs.

The full description can be found here: http://classic.careerbeacon.com/search/en/-1/-1/-1/-1/0/-1/-1/-1/-1/0/3/MB1508057949
Call for Proposals: AP-LS Book Series

The APLS book series is published by Oxford University Press. The series publishes scholarly work that advances the field of psychology and law by contributing to its theoretical and empirical knowledge base.

The editor is interested in proposals for new books. Inquiries and proposals from potential authors should be sent to Dr. Patricia Zapf, Series Editor (E-mail: pzapf@jjay.cuny.edu or phone: 212-866-0608).

AP-LS members receive a 25% discount on any book in the series. The series books are available for purchase online from Oxford University Press online at: https://global.oup.com/academic/content/series/a/american-psychology-law-society-series-plp/?cc=ca&lang=en&

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Click below to follow us!

Submit your photos!
Help us make the newsletter more exciting by submitting your pictures. Pictures taken at research presentations, conferences, and other gatherings would be a great addition to future newsletters!

Submit pictures by emailing them to mhuss@creighton.edu
# Grant Planner

## American Psychological Association
- Various awards compiled by the APA are available for psychologists
- Submission deadlines: Various
- For further information see: [www.apa.org/about/awards/index.aspx](http://www.apa.org/about/awards/index.aspx)

## National Institute of Mental Health
- Various Awards
- Submission deadline: Various
- For information on NIMH funding for research on mental health see: [www.nimh.nih.gov](http://www.nimh.nih.gov)

## National Science Foundation
- Law and Social Sciences Division
- Dissertation Improvement Grants
- Submission deadlines: January 15th and August 15th, yearly
- For further information see: [www.nsf.gov](http://www.nsf.gov)

## American Psychological Association
- Student Awards
- Various awards compiled by the APAGS are available for students
- For further information see: [APA Student Awards](http://www.apa.org)

## American Psychology-Law Society
- Maximum award: $750
- Submission deadlines: January 31st and September 30th, yearly
- For further information see: [Grants-in-Aid](http://www.nsf.gov)

## American Psychological Association
- Early Career Awards
- Various awards compiled by the APA are available for ECPs
- Submission deadline: Various
- For further information see: [Early Career Awards](http://www.apa.org)

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**American Psychology-Law Society**

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